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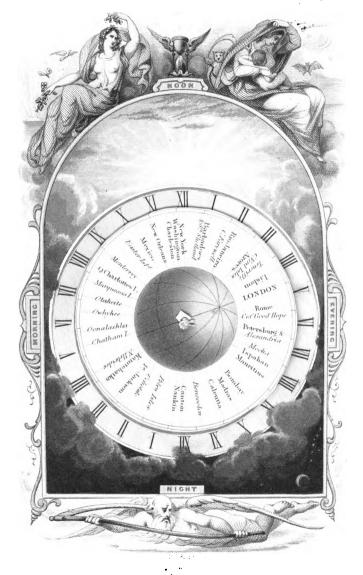
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GOLDSMITH'S GRAMMAR OF GEOGRAPHY. NEW EDITION





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P GRAMMAR EBNERAL GEOGRAPHY. Schools and Young Peiseus

MAPS & ENGRAVINGS

Rev. I. Goldsmith.

Revised, corrected & greatly enturged

EDWARD MUGHES, F. R. G. S. &c.

HEAD MASTER OF THE ROYAL NAVAL LOWER SCHOOL. Breenwich Bospital.



LONDON.

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PREFACE.

THE present Edition of this popular school book has been prepared with the greatest care to satisfy the requirements of modern Education. In order to keep pace with the improved state of geographical knowledge, and the method of imparting it, the whole work has been revised, re-arranged, and expanded. Countries to which political changes or the progress of civilisation has given increased interest and importance, have been brought prominently forward, and their social and political condition described from the most recent information. The Physical Geography of each of the great Continents and of the Globe has been added. To this subject particular attention is directed, as it must form the basis of all intelligent instruction in Geography. The section on Astronomy has been for the most part rewritten-especially Diurnal Astronomy, - and, it is hoped, simplified by illustrations employed by the Editor in teaching this important subject. Remarkable places not mentioned in the text of the work, will be found in the Gazetteer. The Maps combine accuracy with beauty of execution; and the places are marked with strict regard to their importance, so as to convey the most useful information without confusion. Finally, an inspection of the work will show that the publishers are resolved to maintain for it the high reputation which it has for a series of years maintained as a compendious manual of practical instruction in Geography.

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GOLDSMITH'S

GRAMMAR OF GEOGRAPHY.

1. Geography signifies a description of the surface of the earth. It has been divided into three branches; namely, Astronomical, Physical, and Political.

2. Astronomical Geography regards the earth as a planet, and treats of its form, magnitude, and motions,

and the positions of places upon its surface.

3. Physical Geography comprises a knowledge of the composition and distribution of the solid parts of the earth's surface; of the rivers, lakes, and ocean-waters that form its liquid covering; of the atmosphere by which it is surrounded, and of all animal and vegetable life.

4. Political Geography treats of the various states and governments into which the earth has been divided by man, and of all matters relating to mankind in society.

FORM AND SIZE OF THE EARTH.

5. The form of the earth is that of a vast globe or round body, resembling in shape a ball, or, more correctly speaking, an orange.

6. The following facts render it evident that the earth

must be a round body in every direction.

7. When we stand on the sea-shore and look at a ship far out at sea, we observe that the water is elevated between our eyes and the ship, so as to prevent our seeing the whole of her at once. At first we can only get sight of the topsails, but as she approaches the land, her lower sails and hull come distinctly into view. On the contrary, if she is receding from the shore, she seems gradually to

sink as it were behind the convexity of the waters. Persons on ship-board, too, as they near the land, first see the mountain-tops, and then their bases; and if the ship is sailing from the shore, the bases of the mountains are gradually lost sight of, and lastly their summits. Now these appearances are produced by the curved surface of the earth coming between the eye and the object.

8. If we ascend any high object, as a tower or a mountain, a greater extent of the earth's surface becomes visible to us: it is for this reason that sailors climb to the mast-head to look out for land. Persons who ascend in balloons see a larger portion of the earth than we can, because, from their elevated position, they are enabled to look over more of its curved surface.

9. When we travel to any considerable distance from North to South, or from South to North, new stars come into view in the direction in which we are advancing, and they gradually disappear in the quarter from which we are receding. This could not possibly happen if the earth were a flat body in the direction of North and South.

10. The roundity of the earth in the direction of East and West is proved by the fact, that navigators have sailed constantly East or West (as nearly as the form of the different continents will permit) and returned to the place from which they set out. Magelhaens, Drake, and Anson, were among the first who sailed round or circumnavigated the globe; but the voyage is now so often performed that it is considered nothing extraordinary.

11. All these proofs are confirmed and illustrated by eclipses of the moon. Lunar eclipses take place in consequence of the earth coming between the sun and the moon, in which case the moon enters the large cone of darkness or shadow which is projected by the earth. This shadow is found upon the face of the moon in all cases, and in every position of the earth, to be of a circular figure; therefore the earth, which casts this shadow, must be round in every direction, or of a globular form.

12. If the earth, instead of being round in all directions,

was merely a flat circular body like the top of a round table, the shadow thrown from it on the moon would at one time or other present the appearance of an oval, of a straight line, or some other figure different from that which it has always been found to assume. These facts prove that the whole mass of land and water, of which the earth is composed, is nearly of a spherical form: its true shape has been ascertained to be what is termed an oblate spheroid. Though mountains appear to be enormous protuberances upon the earth's surface, they are inconsiderable when compared with the whole mass of the globe. They may therefore be compared to the little risings on the rind of an orange.

EXPLANATION OF GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS.

- 13. When we look forth to a great distance upon the surface of the sea or land, our view becomes bounded by a line where the earth and sky seem to touch: this line is called the *Visible* or *Sensible horizon*.
- 14. The direction of the heavens in which the sun rises in the morning is called the East, and that in which it sets in the evening the West. When we look at the sun at noon we then face the South, and our backs are towards the North; on our left is the East, and on our right the West.
- 15. The North, South, East, and West are called the chief or Cardinal points of the Compass, of which there are altogether 32 points. On the plate illustrating the globes there is an engraving of the Compass. Upon a pivot in the centre a little bar of iron, called the needle, is placed, and when allowed to move freely it always points towards the North.* By means of the compass

^{*} But not to the true North point of the horizon. The angle which the needle makes with the geographical meridian of any place is called the "Variation of the Compass." According as the needle is inclined to the east or west of the meridian, it is termed East or West variation. The variation at Greenwich is now (1850) 22° 50' W.

navigators are enabled to direct their course at sea; and by it we can find the position of places with respect to each other: thus, if we know where any one place is situated, and that another is said to be north or south of it, we then know in what direction the place is.

16. Maps are pictures of the earth, or parts of its surface. The top of a map is generally the North, and the bottom the South, the right hand the East, and the left

the West.

17. In the Map of the World both sides of the earth are presented to view at once; each side is called a half-sphere, or Hemisphere. The Map exhibits the Eastern and Western Hemispheres.

18. The earth turns round once in 24 hours. Besides this motion it performs a revolution round the sun once

in a year.

- 19. The line about which the earth appears to turn in 24 hours is called its Axis, and the ends of the axis are called the Poles.
- 20. There are two Poles: namely, the North Pole, which is the north end of the earth's axis, and the South Pole, which is the south end.
- 21. Upon the surface of the earth a number of lines are supposed to be drawn; the principal of these are the Equator, the Parallels of Latitude, and the Meridians.

Parallels of Latitude.



Meridians.



- 22. Great Circles are those which divide the earth into two equal parts, or whose plane passes through the earth's, centre.
 - 23. The Equator and Meridians are called great circles,

because they divide the globe into two equal parts. The parallels are smaller circles dividing the globe into two

unequal parts.

24. The Equator is a great circle passing round the globe everywhere at equal distance from each pole. The circumference of the earth at the equator is 24,876 English miles, and its diameter 7926. The axis, or polar diameter, is 26 miles shorter than the equatorial diameter.

25. Parallels of Latitude are small circles passing round

the globe parallel to the equator.

26. Meridians are great circles passing round the globe through the poles, and cutting the equator at right angles.

27. Latitude is the distance of a place, in degrees, minutes, or seconds, north or south from the equator.

All nations reckon latitude from the equator.

28. Longitude is the distance of the meridian of one place in degrees, minutes, or seconds from the meridian of another place. The meridian passing through the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, is that from which we reckon longitude, but some nations assume the meridian of the capital city, or principal observatory, of their own country as a first meridian. The ancients reckoned longitude from Ferro (one of the Canary Islands). Many foreign maps, particularly German, have the longitude reckoned from the same place.

29. The Parallels at 23°28′, on each side of the equator, are called *Tropics*; that on the north the Tropic of Cancer, and that on the south the Tropic of Capricorn. The Parallels 23° 28′ from each pole are called the *Polar circles*; that in the North the *Arctic circle*, and that in

the South the Antarctic circle.

30. These Parallels divide the globe into five zones; namely,—

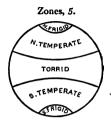
31. The Torrid Zone, which embraces that part of the earth between the Tropics.

32. The North Temperate Zone is between the Tropic of Cancer and the Arctic circle.

33. The South Temperate Zone is between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic circle.

- 34. The North Frigid Zone is between the Arctic circle and the North Pole.
- 35. The South Frigid Zone is between the Antarctic circle and the South Pole.





GEOGRAPHICAL . TERMS.

36. Land and Water form the two great natural divisions of the earth's surface.

37. The following terms are applied to the various portions of land and water according to their shape, extent, and position.

Land. Water. Continents. Oceans. Islands. Seas. Gulfs. Peninsulas. Tsthmuses. Bays. Coasts and shores. Straits. Promontories. Lakes. Rivers. Capes.

- 38. A continent is a portion of land of great extent, not entirely separated by the sea from other lands, as Europe, Asia, and Africa, in the Eastern Hemisphere, and North and South America in the Western Hemisphere. The Island of Australia, from its vast extent, is sometimes called the Southern or Australian Continent.
- 39. An *island* is land surrounded by water, as Great Britain, Ireland, Cuba, Jamaica, Madagascar, Ceylon, Borneo.

- 40. A peninsula is land almost surrounded by water, as Scandinavia, Spain with Portugal, Italy, Greece, Arabia, Hindoostan, Malacca, Corea, Labrador, Florida, Yúcatan, and Old California.
- 41. An isthmus is a narrow neck of land joining two other portions of land, as the Isthmus of Corinth, connecting the Morea to the Continent of Europe, the Isthmus of Suez joining Africa to Asia, and the Isthmus of Panama, linking together North and South America.

42. A coast is the land adjacent to the sea.

- 43. A shore is that part of the land which is washed by the sea.
- 44. A promontory is an elevated and somewhat tapering projection of the land into the Ocean, a sea or lake.

45. A cape is a portion of land which points into the

sea; it is the extremity of a promontory.

46. The Ocean, taken in its widest sense, means that vast body of salt water which encompasses the globe, washing the shores of every continent. In a more limited sense it is distinguished into five grand divisions; viz. —

- 47. The Pacific Ocean, which is bounded by the Arctic circle on the North, and the Antarctic circle on the South. America with the meridian of Cuba bounds it on the East, and Asia, with the islands of Sumatra, Java, and Australia, on the West. It is divided by the Equator into the North and South Pacific.
- 48. The Atlantic Ocean has the Arctic circle for its limit on the North, and the Antarctic circle on the South. Its Eastern boundary is formed by the shores of Europe and Africa, and the meridian of Cape Lagullas. Its Western limit is the coast of America and the meridian of Cape Horn, the Equator divides it into the North and South Atlantic.
- 49. The *Indian Ocean* has for its boundaries Arabia, Persia, Hindoostan on the North, and the Antarctic circle on the South; Africa on the West; and the Islands of the East Indian Archipelago and Australia on the East. It is divided into the Intertropical and Southern Oceans.
 - 50. The Arctic Ocean is bounded by the Arctic circle

and the Northern shores of the Continents of Asia, Europe, and America.

51. The Antarctic Ocean is between the Antarctic

circle and the South Pole.

52. A sea is the next largest division of water after an ocean, as the Mediterranean Sea, the Baltic Sea, the White Sea, Black Sea, Red Sea, Yellow Sea, Sea of China, Caribbean Sea, &c. There are, however, some inland seas, or seas unconnected with the ocean, as the Caspian Sea and Sea of Aral.

53. A gulf is a deep branch of the sea running into the land, as the Gulf of Finland, the Gulf of Venice, Persian Gulf, the gulf of Mexico, the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

54. A bay is an arm of the sea having a much wider opening than a gulf, as the Bay of Biscay, the Bay of Bengal. A cove is a well sheltered bay, as the Cove of Cork.

55. A harbour is a part of the sea so enclosed by land (except at its entrance), that ships may ride at anchor

within it in safety.

56. A road or roadstead is an open part of the sea, not far from the shore, affording temporary anchorage for inward or outward bound vessels.

57. A creek is a narrow portion of the sea, or of rivers

running into the land.

58. Straits, a term generally used in the plural, signifying a short and narrow passage joining two seas, as the Straits of Gibraltar, the Straits of Dover, the Straits of the Sound, the Straits of Messina, Behring's Straits, Straits of Magelhaens.

59. A channel is a long and narrow passage of water leading from one sea to another, as the English Channel,

St. George's Channel.

60. A frith (fretum) generally called firth, is a narrow arm of the sea into which a river falls, as the Firth of Forth, the Solway Firth, the Firth of Tay, Dornoch Firth, and Moray Firth. It is also applied in Scotland to open channels, as the Pentland Firth, &c.

61. An estuary is an inlet entered both by rivers and

the tides of the sea, as the Estuaries of the Humber,

Mersey, and Dee.

62. Currents are constant movements of the waters of the sea, and of rivers in certain directions. Those of rivers and of particular straits and channels are termed constant currents; of this class also are the Equatorial and Polar Currents. Occasional currents are those which are produced by occasional causes.

63. An archipelago is a large number of islands of various sizes, as the Grecian Archipelago, the Aleutian

Archipelago, the Caribbean Archipelago.

- 64. A lake is a portion of water of greater or less extent, surrounded by land, as the Lake of Ladoga, the Lake of Geneva, Lake Baikal, Lake Tchad, the fresh water lakes of North America, namely Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, Ontario; the Lake Titicaca in South America is remarkable as being the highest known lake in the world.
- 65. A river is a current of water, flowing in an open channel through the land. Rivers are formed by brooks and rivulets, whose collected waters they pour into the ocean or some great inland lakes. The source of a river is where it rises or begins to flow, the mouth where it discharges its waters into a lake or the sea.

66. The surface of the land is composed of mountains, hills, upland plains or plateaus, lowland plains, valleys,

and deserts.

- 67. A mountain is an enormous mass of the earth, considerably elevated above the level of the sea, as the Alps, the Atlas, the Himalaya, the Rocky Mountains, and the Andes.
- 68. A hill. This name may be properly applied to elevations under 1000 feet.
- 69. Upland plains or plateaus are extensive tracts, whose general level is considerably elevated above that of the sea.
- 70. Lowland plains are tracts of land only slightly elevated above the level of the sea; in some places, however, they are below it.

71. Valleys are the spaces lying between opposite

ranges of mountains or hills.

72. Desert is now used to denote sterile tracts which are occupied by stony or sandy plains, and rendered, by the nature of their soil, their want of water, or other causes, unfit for the permanent abode of man.

DISTRIBUTION, FORM, AND GENERAL FEATURES OF THE LAND.

73. The whole extent of the earth's surface has been estimated at about 1961 millions of English square miles, of which the land occupies about 511 millions, and the ocean waters about 145 millions: the land therefore occupies about one-fourth, and the ocean waters about three-fourth parts of the surface of the globe.

74. If the surface of the earth be represented as on the Map of the hemispheres, it has been calculated that there is about 21 times as much land in the Eastern hemisphere as in the Western, and that there is about 3 times as much land to the north of the equator as to

the south of it.

75. Though the coast line of the land appears much indented and broken, yet it may be observed that the large continents in their general outline are of a triangular shape: this is very striking in the form of North and South America, in Africa, and in the great peninsulas of Europe and Asia. It may be further observed, that the continents, with the exception of Africa, present on their northern sides vast flats of low-lying land, and that the southern coasts are lofty and pointed. It is also remarkable that almost all the peninsulas point southward; for instance, in the Eastern hemisphere, there are Scandinavia, Italy, Greece, Africa, Arabia, Hindoostan, Malacca, Corea, and Kamschatka; and in the Western hemisphere, Greenland, Nova Scotia, Florida, California, and South America. The peninsulas pointing northward are Jutland in Europe, and Yucatan in America; those stretching westward are the peninsulas of Aliaska in

Russian America and Cotentin in France. The surface of the land too is exceedingly irregular, consisting in many places of elevated mountain masses, and in others of extensive lowlands. In some places the land is merely undulating, and in others it is rugged and broken. Upon referring to the Map of the Hemispheres, we observe that in the Eastern hemisphere the mountain-chains run nearly in the direction from east to west, and that in the Western hemisphere they run from north to south. From these elevated ridges the land slopes towards the sea, sometimes very gently, and at others abruptly. It is this variation of level that influences the direction amenitude of rivers, and is one of the principal causes in producing the differences of climate in countries similarly situated with respect to the Equator.

76. The whole area of the land has been estimated at 511 millions of square miles, as exhibited in the follow-

ing Table.

The Eastern Continent or Old World.

The Western Continent or New World.

North America and the West India Islands, area - 8 millions. South America, ,, - $\frac{6\frac{1}{2}}{14\frac{1}{2}}$, Total $\frac{1}{2}$

Oceania, or the Maritime World, about 4 millions.

THE WORLD.

77. Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Oceania, form the five grand divisions of the globe. It has been conjectured that the number of human beings inhabiting these vast regions amounts to about 990 millions; α which

Europe con	ntains	-	-	249 m	illions.
Asia -	-	-	-	625	,,
Africa	-	-	-	70	,,
America	-	-	-	44	,,
Oceania	-	-	-	2	,,
		Total	-	990	

78. Mankind has been arranged into five great families or classes, according to the form of the skull and colour of the skin: 1. the Caucasian; 2. the Mongolian; 3. the Ethiopic; 4. the Malay; 5. the American.

79. The Caucasian or white. In this class the head is almost round, the face nearly oval, the forehead high, the nose arched, the cheek-bones rather narrow, the mouth small, and the teeth in the upper jaw nearly perpendicular to the lower. They inhabit Europe, the west and north of Asia, Northern Africa, and the various European colonies. Though the Caucasians are properly enough called the white race, because they are all born with light complexions, their colour seems to depend very much upon climate and the degree of solar heat to which they are exposed. The colour deepens by regular gradation, from the farthest north, where they are very fair, through the olive-coloured people of the south of France, of Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece, and the swarthy Moors, till the gradation leads into the deep black natives of the African and Arabian deserts and of inter-tropical India.

80. The Mongolian or yellow class has the head almost square, the face broad and flat, the cheek-bones pro-

jecting, the nose flat and nostrils narrow, the skin of an olive brown, the hair thin, long, and coarse: they have little or no beard. In this class are comprised the numerous tribes that occupy the central, north-east, east, and south-east parts of Asia, the Chinese and Japanese, the people of Tibet, Bootan, and Indoo-China, the Finns and the Laplanders of the north of Europe, and the Esquimaux who live along the shores of the Polar Sea of America and Greenland. The Turks also are probably of Mongolian origin.

81. The Ethiopic or black race has the head narrow and compressed at the sides, the forehead very convex and vaulted, the cheek-bones projecting, the nose round and flat, and the nostrils wide; the lips, particularly the upper one, very thick; the skin and eye deep black; the hair black and woolly. In this class are comprised all the natives of Africa, to the south of the Sahara and Abyssinia; also the natives of Australia, Vandiemen's Land or Tasmania, Papua or New Guinea, New Britain, the Solomon Islands, New Georgia, the New Hebrides, new Caledonia, the Feejee Islands, and also various tribes throughout the Indian Archipelago.

82. The Malay or tawny class has the top of the head slightly narrowed, the face broader than that of the negro; the nose broad, and thick towards the point; the colour of the skin is brown or tawny; the hair black, soft, and curled, and abundant. In this class are comprised all the natives of the islands of the Pacific Ocean (excepting those already mentioned as belonging to the Ethiopic class), likewise the dominant nations of the

Indian Archipelago.

83. The American or copper-coloured class approaches the Mongolian: the cheek-bones are prominent; the face is broad, but not flat; the forehead low; eyes deep-seated; nose rather flat, but prominent; the skin is red, more or less dark or copper-coloured, and approaching to black, according to climate and other circumstances; the hair is like that of the Mongolian class, and they have little or no beard. In this class are comprehended

all the native American tribes and nations, excepting of course the Esquimaux, and the descendants of European and African colonists.

84. We shall now proceed to consider the Physical and Political Geography of the great divisions of the Globe.

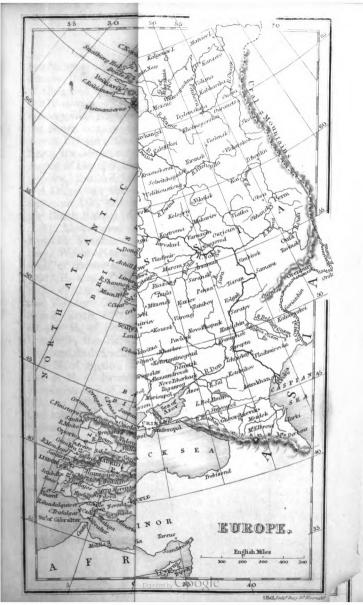
EUROPE.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

85. Astronomical Position, Extent, Boundaries. - This continent forms the north-western portion of the Old World, and is situated between 36° and 71° north latitude and between 10° west and 70° east longitude. Its greatest length, which is in the direction of north-east and south-west, is about 3500 miles, from the mouth of the river Kara, which falls into the Arctic Ocean, to Cape St. Vincent in Spain. Its greatest breadth from Cape North in Lapland to Cape Matapan in Greece is about 2450 miles. Its area, including the islands, is estimated at about 33 millions of square miles. Arctic Ocean bounds it on the North, the Mediterranean with its branches on the South, and the Atlantic on the West. On the East it has a political boundary, formed by the Ural mountains, the river Ural, the western shores of the Caspian, and a line continued along the range of the Caucasus and the northern shores of the Black Sea.

86. General Aspect.—The whole surface, which is distinguished by great irregularities, may be divided into three grand divisions: viz. the southern and north-western mountain regions, and an extensive intervening plain. The coast line is very much broken and varied by numerous inland seas, gulfs, and harbours; its whole



extent, which is about 17,200 miles, is longer in proportion to the size of the continent than that of any other

of the great divisions of the globe.

87. Seas. — The White Sea, an arm of the Arctic Ocean; the Baltic Sea, between Russia and Sweden; the North Sea, or German Ocean, between Germany and Great Britain; the Irish Sea, between England and Ireland; the Mediterranean Sea, which washes the southern shores of the continent: the branches of this great inland sea are, the Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice, between Italy and Dalmatia; the Ægean Sea, or Grecian Archipelago, between Asia Minor and Turkey; the Sea of Marmora; the Black Sea: and the Sea of Azov.

88. Gulfs and Bays. - Gulf of Tcheskaia, N. of Russia; Waranger Fiord, N. of Lapland; Drontheim Bay, W. of Norway; Christiania Bay, S. of Sweden; Gulf of Bothnia, N. arm of the Baltic; Gulf of Finland, E. arm of the Baltic; Gulf of Riga or Livonia, S. E. of the Baltic; Gulf of Dantzic, S. of the Baltic; the Zuyder Zee, a large Gulf of the German Ocean: Moray Frith, in the N.E. of Scotland; Frith of Forth. on the E. of Scotland; the Wash, on the E. coast of England; the Solway Frith, on the W. coast between England and Scotland; the Bay of Biscay, W. of France and N. of Spain; Trafalgar Bay, S. of Spain; Gulf of Lyons, S. of France; Gulf of Genoa, S. of continental Sardinia; Bay of Naples, S.W. of Italy; Gulf of Taranto, S.E. of Italy; Gulf of Lepanto, W. of the Isthmus of Corinth; Bay of Navarino, S.W. of the Morea; Gulf of Egina, E. of the isthmus of Corinth; Gulf of Salonica, S. of Macedonia.

i 89. Straits and Channels.—Straits of Waigatz, between the island Waigatz and N. of Russia; West Fiord, between the Laffoden Isles and the mainland of Norway; Skager Rack, between Jutland and Norway; Cattegat, between Jutland and Sweden; the Sound, between Sweden and the island of Zealand; Great Belt, between the islands of Zealand and Funen; Little Belt, between the islands of Funen and Jutland; Straits of Dover,

between England and France; English Channel, between S. of England and N. of France; Bristol Channel, between Wales and the counties of Somerset and Devon; St. George's Channel, between England and Ireland; Menai Straits, between the Isle of Anglesea and Carnarvon; North Channel, between Ireland and Scotland; Pentland Frith, between the Orkney Isles and mainland of Scotland; Straits of Gibraltar, between Spain and Africa; Straits of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia; Straits of Messina, between Italy and the island of Sicily; Straits of Otranto, between Naples and Turkey; Straits of the Dardanelles, between Turkey and Asia Minor; Straits of Constantinople; Straits of Caffa,

or Enikale, between the Crimea and Russia.

90. Promontories and Capes. - North Cape in N. of Lapland; Naze, in the S. of Norway; Skaw, in the N. of Jutland; The Horn, in W. coast of Jutland; Cape Wrath, in the N.W. point of the mainland of Scotland; Duncansby Head, in the N.E. extremity of Scotland: St. Abb's Head, on the N.E. of Scotland; Flamborough Head, in E. of England; Land's End, in S.W. of England; St. David's Head, S. W. of Wales; Malin Head, N. of Ireland; Cape Clear, S. of Ireland; Cape La Hogue, N.W. of France: Cape Ortegal, N.W. of Spain; Cape Finisterre, N.W. of Spain; Rock of Lisbon, W. of Portugal; Cape St. Vincent, S. W. of Portugal; Cape St. Maria, S. of Portugal; Cape Trafalgar, S. W. of Spain; Rock of Gibraltar, S. of Spain; Cape De Gata, S. E. of Spain; Cape De Palos, S. E. of Spain; Cape Nao, E. of Spain; Cape Antonia, E. of Spain; Cape St. Sebastian, E. of Spain; Cape Creux, N. E. of Spain; Cape Corsa, N. of Corsica; Cape Comino, E. of the island of Sardinia; Cape Passora, S. of Sicily; Cape Spartivento, S. of Italy; Cape di Leuca, S. of Italy; Cape Matapan, S. of Greece; Cape Angelo, S. of Greece.

91. Peninsulas. — Scandinavia (comprising Norway and Sweden), Lapland, Jutland, Spain, and Portugal, Italy, with the Sub-Peninsulas of Calabria and Otranto. Turkey with Greece, which includes the Sub-Peninsulas

of the Morea and Salonica. The Crimea, Devon and Cornwall, S. W. of England; Brittany and Cotentin, N.W. of France.

92. Isthmuses.—The Isthmuses are those of Corinth and Perecop: the former joins the Morea, and the latter the Crimes.

93. Islands. — In the Arctic Ocean: Spitzbergen,

Nova Zembla, Waigatz, Kalguef.

In the Atlantic: Loffoden Isles, Iceland, Ferroe Isles, Shetland Isles, Orkney Isles, Hebrides, Great Britain, Ireland, Azores.

In the Baltic Sea: Zealand, Funen, Laland, Femern, Falster, Moen, Rugen, Bornholm, Oland, Gothland Oesel, Dago, Aland.

In the Gulf of Finland: Cronstadt.

In the North Sea or German Ocean: Heligoland, Ameland, Schelling, Vlieland, Texel, North Beveland, South Beveland, Walcheren, Schonwen, Over Flakkee.

In the Irish Sea: Isle of Man, Isle of Anglesea.

In the English Channel: Isle of Wight, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark.

In the Bay of Biscay: Ushant, Belleisle, Rhe, Oleron.

In the Mediterranean Sea: Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, Formentera, Hieres, Corsica, Elba, Sardinia, Lipari Isles, Sicily, Malta, Gozzo, Lampedusa, Lampion, Limosa, Candia.

In the Ionian Sea: Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephalonia, Zante, Cerigo.

In the Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice: Cherso,

Brazza, Lesina, Lissa.

In the Archipelago: Lemnos, Mitylene, Scio, Negropont, Andros, Syra, Paros, Nazia, Milo, Rhodes, Scarpanto.

94. Mountains. — The European Mountains comprise the following ranges, some of which spread over the islands. The continental ranges are, the *Ural* on the E. the *Caucasus* on the S.E., both of which are common to Europe and Asia; the *Balkan*, in Turkey; the *Krapack*, or *Carpathian*, between Hungary and Poland; the *Hercynian*, which runs through Germany; the *Slavonic*,

the highest of which is the Waldai, in Central Russia; the Alps, between France and Italy; the Apennines. which run through the whole of Italy; the Cevennes, S. of France; the Pyrenees, between France and Spain; the Hysperian Mountains, the continuation of which are the Cantabrian Mountains, in the N. of Spain; the Celtiberian, in the eastern part; four nearly parallel ridges traverse the peninsula, in the direction from E. to W.: viz. the Castilian, the Mountains of Toledo, Sierra Morena, and the Sierra Nevada. In Portugal are the Sierra D'Estrella; the Scandinavian Mountains (the northern part of which are called the Koelen Mountains. and the southern the Dovre-Field), run through Lapland. The insular ranges are, the Sweden, and Norway. Sardo-Corsican, which comprise the Mountains of the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. The Britannic ranges. which include the mountains of Great Britain and Ireland; the Western System of the group of islands called the Azores, and the Boreal range or Mountains of Spitzbergen.

95. Table-Lands or Mountain Plains.—The most remarkable is that of Central Spain; then follow the Table-lands of Switzerland, between the Alps and the Jura Mountains, the Table-land of Auvergne, of Pied-

mont, of Jura, of Bavaria, and that of Thuringia.

96. Volcanoes.—Vesuvius (3,932 ft.), near to Naples in the peninsula of Italy, and Etna (10,874 ft.), on the coast of Sicily; Stromboli, Vulcano, and Vulcanello, in the

Lipari Islands; and Hecla (5,210 ft.), in Iceland.

97. Plains, Valleys.—A vast lowland Plain extends from the German Ocean to the base of the Uralian Mountains, and the shores of the Caspian Sea, occupying nearly two-thirds of the whole Continent. The next great Plains are those of the Lower and Middle Danube; then follow the Plains watered by the Lower Rhine, and that of Lombardy watered by the Po. The Landes are extensive sandy plains, extending between the Pyrenees and the river Garonne. The most remarkable Valleys are, those of Bohemia, the Upper Rhine, and the Drave. The mountain regions present numerous Valleys, some of which

are extensive. Those of Norway and Scotland are long

and narrow, and are chiefly occupied by lakes.

98. Deserts.—Europe presents no tracts properly called Deserts, but there are extensive wastes and heaths: the chief of which are the steppe of Ryn, between the Volga and Oural; the steppe of the Ural, between that river and the Don; the steppe of Crimea, and the steppe of Petchora. There are also large sterile tracts in North Germany, in South France, and in Lapland, Sweden, and Norway.

99. Rivers.—These may be classed according to the seas into which they fall; we shall therefore arrange the

most important in the following order: -

100. 1. Rivers falling into the Arctic Ocean: the Tana, the Petchora, and the Kara. The White Sea receives the Mezen, the Northern Dwina or Dvina, and the Onega.

101. 2. The Baltic and its branches receive the Tornea, the Lulea, Pitea, Umea, Indals, and Dal. From Russia: the Neva, the Southern Dwina, and the Niemen. From

Germany: the Vistula and the Oder.

102. 3. The Atlantic and its branches receive the British rivers; the most important of which are the Thames, Humber, Severn, Mersey, Clyde, and Shannon. From Germany flow the Weser and Elbe. From Holland: the Scheldt, the Meuse, and the Rhine. From France: the Seine, Loire, and Garonne. From Spain: the Minho, Douro, Tagus, Guardiana, and Guadalquiver.

103.4. The Mediterranean and its branches receive from Spain the Zucar and Ebro; the Rhone from France; the Arno, Tiber, and Po from Italy; the Maritza, the Struma, and the Vardar, from European Turkey; the Danube, Dneister, Bug, Dneiper, and the Kouban, fall into the Black Sea; and the Don discharges its waters into the

sea of Azov.

104. 5. The Caspian receives the Terek, Volga, and Ural. 105. Lakes. — In Russia there are Ladoga, Onega, Peipus, Bielo-Osero, Ilmen, Lexa.

In Finland: Saimas, Ulea, Tavesthus or Nesi, Kuopio

In Lapland: Enara.

In Sweden: Wener, Wetter, Mælar.

In Switzerland: Geneva, Constance, Neuchatel, Lucerne, and Zurich.

In Italy: Garda and Como.

In Hungary: Balaton.

106. Soil.—The soil of Europe is in most parts extremely fertile, and is distinguished from that of any other quarter of the globe in the value of its productions. Its northern forests furnish the finest timber. Grain of almost every kind is raised over its surface, excepting the extreme north. The vine flourishes in the southern districts, and nowhere are the more substantial and agreeable articles of human diet produced on so great a scale, or in such high perfection.

107. Climate. — With respect to the temperature and the duration of the different seasons of the year, Europe may be divided into three parallel zones; viz. the southern zone or climate, which extends southward of latitude 45°: in this zone the cold is slight, the winter being mostly confined to rainy weather, from October to January. Snow rarely falls, and vegetation is scarcely impeded. - the middle or temperate zone, between latitude 45° and 55°. The winter is the longest season. lasting generally from November to March or April. the northern climate extends over the regions to the north of 55°. The seasons are for the most part confined to two-summer and winter. In the more northern part of this zone the snow lies on the ground, and the rivers are frozen for more than six months of the year. The severities of a long winter are succeeded by two or three months of intense heat, during which the sun never sinks below the horizon.

PRODUCTIONS.

108. Minerals. — The mines furnish an almost inexhaustible supply of those metals which are most serviceable to man; namely, iron, lead, copper, tin, coal, and salt; which are plentiful in Western Europe, particularly Great Britain. Quicksilver is obtained from the mines

of Idria in the Austrian Empire, and gold and platina from the Oural Mountains.

109. Vegetation. - South of 38° the date-palm, sugarcane, cotton plant, and castor-oil plant flourish. Greece, Turkey, and Southern Russia, there is a large intermixture of Asiatic plants. Up to latitude 44° the orange, lemon, olive, and other fruits are found in great abundance; the mulberry, pomegranate, and melons also To the south of 44° the mountains are covered with chestnut-woods: evergreens take the place of oaks. The vine affords excellent wine in the West as high as 48°, where the vine begins to fail. Apple and pear trees flourish. The limits of the bread corns are not well defined: 58° may be regarded as the limit of the culture of wheat; but the hardier grains, as rye, oats, and barley, are cultivated in some parts as high as 67° In Scandinavia, Russia, and Germany, there are extensive forests: in these regions the oak is the lord of the forest, and often attains to an enormous size; it disappears about latitude 60°, the ash about 62°; the beech and lime are seldom found farther N. than 63°. or firs and pines beyond 70°. In the Alps, the Pyrenees. and on the slopes of Mount Etna, similar vegetable products are met with at different degrees of elevation. The plane tree, flowering ash, carob, laurels, and a host of dyeing, medicinal, and aromatic plants abound; and the surface of the earth is almost continually clothed with the richest verdure.

110. Animals.—The increase of population, clearing of forests, and cultivation of the soil have greatly checked the increase of wild animals in this continent. The most formidable are the white bear, confined to the arctic region, and the black and brown bear common in the Alps and Pyrenees; the wolf inhabiting many parts of Europe, and the wild boar met with in the woods and forests of Germany, France, and Russia.

111. The largest animals are the elk, the reindeer, the red deer, and roebuck; and in the Alpine regions, the chamois and ibex, &c. The smaller animals are the

lynx, wild cat, fox, marten, otter, beaver, pole-cat, glutton, porcupine, hedgehog, weasels, squirrels, hares, rabbits, rats, mice, &c. The leming, a species of rat, a native of Scandinavia, is a great scourge to the industrious Swede and Norwegian. Myriads of these animals travel at irregular periods from east to west in search of food, and devour every thing that comes in their way, spreading desolation all around.

112. Europe contains the most valuable, as well as the most numerous, breeds of domestic animals. The black cattle and sheep have attained to the highest perfection, particularly in England. The English draught-horses are unrivalled for strength, and the race-horses for speed and endurance. The ass is much valued in the South, where his sure-footedness and hardiness render him highly valuable: he, however, degenerates in the colder parts of the continent. Hogs are plentiful in almost every country of Europe, and dogs are more numerous than anywhere else. The domestic cat appears to have descended from the wild species. The domestic goat is believed to have been derived from a wild species inhabiting the Alps and Illyria.

113. The birds are much more various than the quadrupeds. The birds of prey are vultures; of which there are four species, inhabiting the Alpine ranges. Eagles, falcons, owls, &c. are met with in the rocky and mountainous parts of the North. Within the Arctic region the

birds are nearly all aquatic.

114. The Balearic crane, pelican, flamingo are found in the South. Game is generally diffused throughout the whole of Europe; but the red grouse is confined to Scotland. Poultry, &c. are plentiful, particularly in the West. The smaller birds cannot boast the brilliant plumage of those inhabiting the other continents, but they excel all others in melody.

115. The nightingale is remarkable for the richness and variety of its song. It is said to be common in nearly all the parts of Europe as far north as Sweden, inclusive; and that it migrates in winter into Egypt and Syria.

116. Though Europe be not wholly free from reptiles, few of them are either large or venomous.

117. The principal fishes inhabiting the oceans and seas are the cod, herring, whiting, mackerel, haddock, mullet, anchovy, and tunny: the two latter are confined to the Mediterranean.

118. Shell-fish abound in the Northern Seas, and seals in the Arctic Ocean, and Baltic, and their branches. The salmon, pike, trout, carp, perch, &c. inhabit the fresh waters. Insects are numerous in the South. The silkworm is perhaps the most useful to man, and is reared in Italy, Greece, and Turkey. Europe is considered the

grand region of butterflies.

119. Races of Men. - The Europeans chiefly belong to the Caucasian race. They are grouped into several distinct families, the most important of which are the Spanish or Iberian (comprising the Spaniards and Portuguese); the Celtic, including the inhabitants of France, Belgium, part of Switzerland, and part of the British Isles (the Highlanders of Scotland, and the Welsh, Manx, Cornish, and Irish, belong to this family); the Italian, including the inhabitants of the various States of Italy; the Greek, comprising the inhabitants of the Greek continent and islands; the Turkish or Tartar, the inhabitants of Turkey; the Slavonic, embracing the Russians, Poles, a portion of the Bohemians, and the people of Lithuania. Moravia, and the provinces on the Danube; the Finnish, (the Finns and Laplanders, who with the Turks, and Magyars of Hungary, are probably of Mongolian origin,) a mixed race inhabiting the eastern por-Sons of the Austrian empire, and the German family. Each of these has its peculiar characteristic: the latter is the most remarkable as being the most enterprising and powerful; blue eyes, yellow or flaxen hair, and a fair skin, are its leading features. It embraces the inhabitants of Germany, part of Switzerland, the Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, Dutch, and a large proportion of the English and Scotch.

NATURAL AND POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

120. Europe in respect to its natural divisions is formed by its mountain ranges, rivers, and seas into several distinct countries. The two grand divisions are Eastern and Western Europe, the former comprehending the countries on the north and south of the Carpathian Mountains: the latter, the countries north and south of the Alps, the countries of the Baltic, the islands of the North Sea, and the Pyrenean Peninsula.

121. Its political divisions are at present (1850) sixtyone independent states, which may be arranged in four ranks. In the first of these stand Great Britain, Russia, France, Austria, and Prussia, called the five great powers. The states of the second rank are Spain, Holland, Sweden, and Turkey. Those of the third are Belgium, Portugal, Naples, Bavaria, Sardinia, Denmark, Saxonv. Würtemberg, Hanover, and the Swiss Confederation. The remainder belong to the fourth rank.

122. The forms of government are various, but may all be distributed into three great classes; viz. Empires,

Kingdoms. and Republics.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

Sovereign States.	Capitals, Situation.	Population.	Religion.
Scotland Ireland Republic of France - Empire of Russia - Empire of Austria -		2,620,184 8,175,124 -35,400,486 56,500,000 37,000,000	Protestants of every sect, Catholics, Jews, &c.

Sovereign States.	Capitals, Situation.	Population.	Religion.
Bavaria -	Munich, on the Iser	4,315,450	Catholics and Lu-
Saxony -	Dresden, on the Eibe	1,706,000	Lutherans and Ca- tholics.
Würtemberg -	Stuttgard, on Neseu, tributary of the Neckar	1,701,000	Lutherans and Ca- tholics.
Hanover -	- Hanover, on the Leine, branch of the Weser -	1,755,000	Lutherans and Ca- tholics.
The minor German States.		7,000,000	Protestants and Ca- tholics.
	- Madrid, on the Man- zanares.	12,268,800	Catholics.
Kingdom of Portugal	Lisbon, on the Tagus	2 540 450	Catholics.
	Amsterdam, on the river Amstel.		Calvinists.
Kingdom of Belgium		4,087,000	Catholics.
Kingdom of Denmark	Copenhagen, on the Is. of Zealand.	2,194,950	Lutherans.
(Kingdom of Sweden	Stockholm, on lake Mœlar.	3,111,000	Lutherans.
Kingdom of Norway	Christiania, on Christiania Bay.	1,243,700	Lutherans.
Switzerland - Italian States:—	Berne, on the Aar -	2,150,000	Protestants and Ca-
	Naples, on the Bay of Naples.	8,230,000	Catholics.
Kingdom of Sar-		4,650,360	Catholics.
	Rome, on the Tiber	9 720 000	Catholics.
Grand Duchy o	f Florence, on the		Catholics.
Duchy of Lucca	Lucca	168,900	Catholics.
	Parma, on the Par-		Catholics.
Austrian Italy of Lombardy.	Milan, Venice -	4,000,000	Catholics.
	Modena, in the plain of Lombardy.	403,500	Catholics.
Principality of Mo-	Monaco, on a pro- montory.	7,000	Catholics.
Republic of San Marino.	- San Marino	7,600	Catholics.
	- Constantinople, on the Sts. of Bos- phorus.	15,000,000	Mahommedans and Greeks.
Kingdom of Greece	Athens, on the Bay of	900,000	Greek Church.
Principality of Servia Principality of Wal- lachia.			Greek Church. Greek Church.
Principality of Mol-		1,000,000	Greek Church.
United States of the Ionian Islands.	Corfu, on the E. of the island	208,050	Greek Church.
Republic of Andorre		8,000	Catholics.

THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

123. The United Kingdom consists of the two large islands of Great Britain and Ireland, and of various small islands. The island of Great Britain is divided into England, Wales, and Scotland. It is about 600 miles long and 300 broad, and contained, in 1841, 18½ millions of inhabitants.

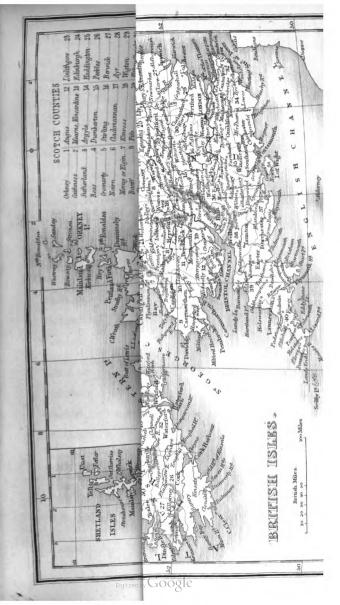
ENGLAND.

124. England is the southern and larger portion of the island of Great Britain; its surface is beautifully diversified by mountains and plains, the latter exhibiting, in most parts, the richest verdure. In the north-west it is mountainous, the west and south hilly, the centre undulating, and the eastern coast low and flat. The midland and southern parts are the richest and most fertile. The western districts are best adapted for pasturage, and the eastern for tillage. About a fourth part of the whole surface is occupied by well-wooded parks connected with the residences of the nobility and gentry; the remaining portion presents evidences of long-continued cultivation.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

125. Mountains. — The chief mountains and hills in England are, the Cheviot, between England and Scotland; Ingleborough and Wharnside, in Yorkshire; Pendle, in Lancashire; Skiddaw and Helvellyn, in Cumberland; Cotswold, in Gloucestershire; Malvern, in Worcestershire; Mendip, in Somersetshire; the Peak, in Derbyshire; and the Wrekin, in Shropshire.

126. Rivers.—The principal are: — The Thames, which passes by Oxford, Windsor, and Richmond, and, being navigable by large vessels from London, is the channel of the greatest trade in the world. The Medway passes by Rochester, Chatham, and Sheerness, (the two last have large dockyards), and enters the sea near the mouth of the Thames. The Severn, along the border of Wales, passes Worcester and Gloucester, and expands



into the Bristol Channel. The Trent flows through the Midland counties by Nottingham, the Ouse through Yorkshire; and these two form the great estuary of the Humber. The Mersey passes by Liverpool, the Tyne by Newcastle, and the Tees by Sunderland.

127. Lakes. - The principal are Derwent and Ulswater, in Cumberland; Windermere, in Westmoreland; Coniston, in Lancashire. Though small, they are very beautiful.

128. Islands. - The Isle of Wight, on the southern coast, is famous for its picturesque beauty. Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, are populous small islands, near the coast of France. The Isle of Man is in the Irish Sea. The Scilly Islands stretch beyond the promontory of Cornwall. On the coast of Northumberland lie Holy Island, and the Farn and Coquet Islands; and in Kent are Thanet and Sheppey.

129. England contains forty Counties or Shires, viz.:-

	Counties.		Chief Towns.
	Northumberland	-	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Alnwick, Tyne- mouth, Berwick.
	Cumberland	-	Carlisle, Whitehaven, Workington, Pen- rith.
Northern.	Durham -	-	Durham, Sunderland, South-Shields, Darlington, and Stockton.
Į,	Westmoreland	-	Appleby, and Kendall.
<	Lancashire -	-	Lancaster, Liverpool, Manchester, Bolton, Preston.
	Yorkshire -	•	York, Leeds, Sheffield, Hull, Bradford, Huddersfield.
	Cheshire -	•	Chester, Stockport, Macclesfield, Congleton, Nantwich.
Western.	Shropshire or Salop.	a-	Shrewsbury, Wellington, Ludlow, Bridgenorth.
Ze A	Herefordshire	-	Hereford, Leominster, Ledbury, Ross.
-	Monmouthshire	-	Monmouth, Pontypool, Newport, Abergavenny.
	Nottinghamshire	-	Nottingham, Newark, Mansfield.
and.	Derbyshire -	-	Derby, Chesterfield, Ashbourne, Matlock.
N. Midland.	Staffordshire	-	Stafford, Wolverhampton, Burton, Lichfield.
>	Leicestershire	-	Leicester, Loughborough, Bosworth.
7	Rutland -	-	Oakum, Uppingham.

	Northamptonshire	-	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry.
	Warwickshire	-	Warwick, Birmingham, Coventry.
and.	Worcestershire	-	Worcester, Dudley, Kidderminster, Evesham.
, <u>1</u>	Gloucestershire	-	Gloucester, Bristol, Cheltenham, Stroud.
S. Midland.	Oxfordshire	-	Oxford, Banbury, Henley, Witney, Woodstock.
•	Buckinghamshire	•	Buckingham, Aylesbury, Wycombe.
	Bedfordshire	-	Bedford, Biggleswade, Dunstable.
	Lincolnshire	-	Lincoln, Boston, Gainsborough, Stamford.
	Huntingdonshire	-	Huntingdon, St. Ives, St. Neots.
	Cambridgeshire	-	Cambridge, Wisbeach, Ely, Newmarket,
F	Norfolk -	-	Norwich, Yarmouth, Lynn Regis.
Eastern.	Suffolk -	•	Ipswich, Bury St. Edmunds, Wood- bridge.
7	Essex -	-	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich.
	Hertfordshire	-	Hertford, St. Albans, Ware.
	Middlesex -	-	London, Westminster, Brentford, Ux- bridge.
ern.	Surrey -	•	Guildford, Southwark, Lambeth, Croydon, Kingston.
Eastern.	Kent	-	Maidstone, Greenwich, Canterbury, Woolwich, Deptford.
Š	Sussex -	-	Chichester, Brighton, Hastings, Lewes.
zi.	Berkshire -	-	Reading, Windsor, Newbury, and Abingdon.
6	Wiltshire -	-	Salisbury, Trowbridge, Bradford, Wilton.
Southern.	Hampshire or }	-	Winchester, Portsmouth, Southampton.
- 1	Dorsetshire -	-	Dorchester, Weymouth, Poole, Bridport.
ï.	Somersetshire	•	Bath, Frome, Taunton, Bridgewater, Wells.
Western.	Devonshire -	-	Exeter, Plymouth, Devonport, Tiverton, Barnstaple.
8.1	Cornwall -	-	Launceston, Redruth, Falmouth, Truro, Bodmin.

Note. — Middlesex and Cheshire have distinct Courts of their own, and are called Counties Palatine. The Counties of Durham and Lancaster are also Palatine.

130. London, the metropolis of Great Britain, is in 51½° north latitude, and contained, in 1841, above 1,800,000 inhabitants. It is the largest city, and the greatest seat of commerce, in the world.

131. The following are some of the principal cities and towns, with their population, according to the census of 1841:—

Liverpool -	-	286,400	Portsmouth	-	53,000
Manchester and	-	242,900	Preston - Bolton -	:	50,300 50,100
Salford 5	-	53,200	Newcastle -	-	49,800
Birmingham	-	182,900	Leicester -	-	48,100
Leeds -	-	152,000	Brighton -	-	46,600
Bristol -	-	122,200	Oldham -	-	42,500
Plymouth, with]		90,000	Hull -	-	41,600
Devonport	-	80,000	Bath -	-	38,300
Sheffield -	-	68,100	Blackburn -	-	36,600
Rochdale -	-	67,800	York -	-	28,800
Norwich -	-	62,000	Cambridge -	-	24,400
Nottingham	-	53,000	Oxford -	-	23,800

PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY.

132. The free and admirable constitution enjoyed by Great Britain, the intelligence, industry, and perseverance of her people, have raised her to the highest pitch of greatness: her maritime power, her manufacturing industry, and her commerce with every quarter of the globe, are completely unrivalled.

133. Manufactures.—The cotton manufacture, though not a century old, is the greatest in this or any other country. The spinning and weaving by steam enables cloths to be produced in wonderful cheapness and abundance. It is supposed to give subsistence to a million and a half of people, and to yield a value of 34,000,000l. sterling: the exports, including twist and yarn, amounted, in 1841, to 23,500,000l. Manchester, its chief seat, is the greatest manufacturing city in the world, having above 6,000 steam engines, and 17,000 power looms. Preston, Bolton, Blackburn, Oldham, and Stockport, are also great seats of the cotton manufacture.

134. The woollen manufacture is the early staple of England, and still employs about half a million of people, yielding a value of 24,000,000l. It is carried on chiefly

at Leeds, a large and handsome town, with a most spacious cloth hall; and at Halifax, Huddersfield, and Wakefield. Very fine cloths are made at Stroud, and other places in Gloucester and Wilts; carpets at Kidderminster; blankets throughout the counties of Berks and Wilts; crapes and bombazines at Norwich.

135. The silk manufacture was introduced by the persecuted Protestants who left France in the reign of Louis XIV., on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685, and has gradually continued to increase at Spital-fields (a part of London), Coventry, Macclesfield, and Manchester. Its value is now estimated at 10,000,000% sterling. Hosiery and lace are the staples of Nottingham, Leicester, and other towns in that quarter.

136. The hardware, firearms, &c., made in the very large town of Birmingham, the cutlery at Sheffield, and similar articles at Wolverhampton, Walsall, Dudley, &c.,

form a great branch, valued at 17,000,000l.

137. Earthenware, established by Mr. Wedgwood, at Burslem, and in a long range of villages in Staffordshire, called the Potteries, has also become worth above 2,000,000l.

138. Northampton is noted for its manufacture of

shoes, and Dorsetshire for that of cordage.

139. Mines. — The most valuable mines of Britain are those of coal, of which the supply is inexhaustible, mostly in the counties of Northumberland, Durham, and Stafford. In this last, and in Derby, iron occurs also in vast abundance. In Derby and Cumberland is a large supply of lead. Cornwall affords tin, a rare and valuable metal, and copper.

PRINCIPAL SEAPORT TOWNS.

140. London, the metropolis of the British empire, is the largest, the wealthiest, and perhaps the most populous city in the world. It is situated partly and principally on the N. bank of the Thames, in the county of Middlesex, and partly on its S. bank, in the county of Surrey, about

45 miles above the river's mouth at the Nore. It is the seat of numerous and very extensive manufactures. The exports comprise every variety of manufactured articles, amongst which may be mentioned silk, hardware, and cutlery, machinery, watches, carriages, musical instruments, furniture, refined sugar, &c.

141. Liverpool, on the west coast, is the next port in importance to London. It carries on an immense trade with Ireland and America; its customs amount to about

4,500,000*l*.

142. Bristol, which once took the lead, is now behind, but still flourishes.

143. Newcastle and Sunderland, on the east coast, are distinguished by the export of coal; Hull, by the Baltic trade, and the whale fishery. Smaller ports are Whitehaven, Poole, Lynn, Yarmouth, Whitby. Falmouth and

Southampton are daily rising in importance.

144. Portsmouth with Portsea, and Plymouth with Devonport, contain dockyards, stores, and works, corresponding to the unrivalled magnitude of the British navy. Deptford and Woolwich on the Thames, Chatham and Sheerness on the Medway, are likewise great stations and depôts.

145. The inland watering places, famous for their salubrious springs, are Bath, Cheltenham, Tunbridge, Harrowgate, Leamington, &c. The sea has places of resort for the summer season on all its coasts; the principal of them are, Brighton, Ramsgate, Scarborough, Weymouth,

Dawlish, and Torquay.

146. There are two archbishoprics, Canterbury and York; and twenty-five bishoprics, including four Welsh bishoprics. The universities are Oxford and Cambridge; also a smaller one at Durham; University and King's Colleges in London.

REMARKABLE INLAND TOWNS.

147. Manchester and Salford. Grand centre of the cotton manufacture, inland, but accessible by roads, canals,

and railways. Probable population, including the country district, above 310,000.

148. Birmingham. Grand centre of the metallic manufactures. Well situated both for communication and for fuel. Probable population, about 190,000.

149. Leeds. Grand centre of the midland woollen

manufacture. Probable population, about 160,000.

150. Sheffield. Grand centre of the steel and cutlery manufacture. Probable population, 110,000.

151. Norwich. Manufactures of fancy stuffs. Probable

population, 72,000.

152. Leicester. Frame-knitting. Probable population, 50,000.

153. Bolton. Cotton manufacture. Probable population, 54,000.

154. Coventry. Fancy silks and ribands. Probable population, 34,000.

155. Wolverhampton. Metallic manufacture. Probable

population, 32,000.

156. Oxford. The seat of a famous university of the same name. No manufactures. Population, 25,000.

157. Cambridge. University of the same name. The county famous for butter and cream cheeses. Population, about 30,000.

The following Facts are worthy of being remembered by Every Young Person.

London is in latitude 51° 30′ 49″; Edinburgh, in 55° 57′ 19″; Dublin in 53° 23′ 13″.

The whole surface of England is 31,770,615 acres; of Wales, 4,752,000; of Scotland, 19,244,388; and of Ireland, 20,274,000.

The population, in 1841, of England was 14,995,138; of Wales,

911,603; of Scotland, 2,620,184; and of Ireland, 8,175,124. In England there were, in 1841, 2,745,336 families; and of every 100 of them, 28 were employed in agriculture, 43 in trade, and 29

100 of them, 28 were employed in agriculture, 43 in trade, and 29 had no employment.

In Scotland there were 50.231 families, and in every 100, 25 were

In Scotland there were 50,231 families; and in every 100, 25 were

in agriculture, 41 in trade, and 34 in no employment.

The cultivated land in England is about 26 millions of acres; in Wales $3\frac{1}{4}$; in Scotland, $5\frac{1}{2}$; and in Ireland, $12\frac{1}{2}$; in all, 47 millions of acres.

Th annual taxes collected in England are about 52 millions, in





PORT OF LONDON.



A CONTRACT OF THE PROPERTY OF

SCOTCH CHIEFS AND EDINBURCH



SACKVILLE STREET, DUBLIN.



Scotland 5, and in Ireland 4 millions. The expenses of collecting are about 34 millions,

There are 27,700 trading ships, belonging to the United Kingdom, of 3,000,000 tons, and navigated by 191,000 men and boys. Of these 600, with a tonnage of 60,000, are steamers.

Almost all the great cities of England are connected by canals, which reach across the kingdom, and extend altogether to above 2.600 miles.

Within the last few years a vast system of railways has been formed, extending over many thousand miles, and having cost upwards of two hundred millions sterling.

The currency or money of the United Kingdom is from 25 to 30 millions of gold and silver coin, and 35 millions of bank and bankers' notes.

The exports of the United Kingdom are about 51 millions; the re-exports 13 millions; and the imports about 63 millions.

The national debt is about 780 millions of various stocks, and the interest and charges are about 284 millions.

The regular army is about 110,000 men; and the navy employed in peace consists of 14 ships of the line, and 28 frigates, manned by 23,000 seamen and 9,000 marines.

The laws are made by the three estates of the realm, consisting of the Sovereign, about 480 Peers, and 658 members of the House of Commons.

The laws are administered by judges, magistrates, and juries of twelve men, whose verdict must be unanimous. In Scotland, in criminal cases, the jury consists of fifteen persons; and unanimity is not required, the verdict being decided by the majority.

158. Wales is a mountainous country, with numerous rivers, and is very picturesque, but less productive than England. The county of Glamorgan contains inexhaustible mines of coal and iron, worked to great advantage. The chief mines are at Merthyr Tydvil, the largest town in the principality. Swansea is the main seat of trade, and a much frequented watering place. The copper mines of Anglesey have been of great value, but are much diminished. Fine flannels are manufactured, the chief market for which is at Welshpool.

159. Wales is divided into twelve counties; six northand six south. The country is inhabited chiefly by a Celtic race, descended from the ancient Britons, most of whom still speak the Welsh language,

The Northern Counties' are,

Counties. Chief Towns.

Flintshire - Flint, St. Asaph.

Denbighshire - Denbigh, Wrexham, Llangollen. Caernaryonshire -- Caernarvon, Bangor, Conway.

Anglesey -- Beaumaris, Holyhead.

Merionethshire - Harlech, Bala,

- Montgomery, Welshpool. Montgomeryshire -

The Southern Counties are.

Cardiganshire Cardigan, Aberystwith.

Radnorshire - Radnor, Presteign.

Pembrokeshire - Pembroke, St. David's, Haverford-West.

Caermarthenshire -- Caermarthen, Kidwelly.

Brecknockshire -Brecknock.

Glamorganshire -- Swansea, Merthyr Tydvil, Cardiff.

Obs. The Island of Anglesey forms one of the Counties of Wales; and from Holyhead, on the western side of this island, is the common passage to Dublin. In 1841, Wales contained 911,603 inhabitants.

SCOTLAND.

160. SCOTLAND is, to a great extent, mountainous, but some districts are highly cultivated. It is divided into two parts, the Lowlands and the Highlands.

161. Scotland is divided into thirty-three counties, as

under: ---

The Northern Counties are ten.

Chief Towns.

Shires. - Kirkwall, Lerwick. Orkney

- Wick, Thurso. Caithness -- Dornoch. Sutherland -

- Tain, Dingwall. Ross - -

Cromarty - Cromarty. - Nairn. Nairn -

Moray, or Elgin -- Elgin, Forres. Banff -- Banff. Cullen.

Aberdeen -- Aberdeen, Peterhead. - Inverness, Fort George. Inverness -

The Middle Counties are nine.

- Perth, Crieff, Dunkeld. Perth -

- Forfar, Dundee, Montrose, Arbroath.

Mearns, or Kincardine - Bervie.

Argyle - Inverary, Campbelltown. Dumbarton - - Dumbarton.

Stirling - - Stirling, Falkirk, Bannockburn.

Clackmannan - - Clackmannan, Alloa.

Kinross - - - Kinross.

Fife - - { Cupar, St. Andrew's, Kirkcaldy, Dunfermline.

The Southern Counties are fourteen.

Bute - - - Rothsay, Lamlash.

Renfrew - - Renfrew, Greenock, Paisley, Port Glasgow.

Lanark - - Glasgow, Lanark, Hamilton.

Linlithgow - - Linlithgow, Bo'ness.

Edinburgh - - Edinburgh, Leith, Dalkeith, Musselburgh.

Haddington - Haddington, Dunbar.

Peebles - - Peebles.

Berwick - - Greenlaw, Dunse, Lauder.

Ayr - - - - Ayr, Kilmarnock, Irvine.

Wigton - - - Wigton, Stranraer, Portpatrick.

Kirkcudbright - - Kirkendbright, Castle Douglas.

Dumfries - - - Dumfries, Annan, Sanquhar.

Selkirk - - Selkirk.

Roxburgh - - Jedburgh, Kelso, Hawick, Mclrose.

162. The Highlands are occupied by a long chain of lofty, rugged mountains, generally called the Grampians. They are inhabited by a Celtic race, who retain a peculiar language, called the Gaelic. Their ancient dress, consisting of the kilt, has almost fallen into disuse. The population, in 1841, amounted to 2,620,184. The esta-

blished religion is Presbyterian,

163. Edinburgh is a very elegant capital, with 138,000 inhabitants, regularly built, and finely situated, having the flourishing town of Leith for its port. Glasgow is the chief seat of trade and manufacture, and, next to London and Liverpool, the most populous city in Britain, having, in 1841, 274,300 inhabitants. Aberdeen, with 76,900, and Dundee, with 62,800 inhabitants, both on the east coast, and Greenock, with 35,600, on the west, are flourishing ports. Scotland is distinguished for eminence in literature, and has four universities; those of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's.

164. Oats are the chief grain; sheep and cattle are abundantly reared, and sent to England. There are ex-

tensive manufactures of cotton and linen, the former chiefly at Glasgow and Paisley (a town of 50,000 inhabitants), the latter at Dundee and Dunfermline. The

herring, cod, and whale fisheries are considerable.

165. The lakes are numerous, and very picturesque. The chief are Loch Lomond, Loch Ness, Loch Tay, Loch Broom, Loch Awe, and Loch Katrine. The highest mountains are the Grampians, the most elevated of which is Ben Nevis; also Benwyvis, Benmacdui, and Cairngorum.

166. The islands adjoining Scotland are Shetland, the Orkneys, the Hebrides (Hebudes), or Western Islands, and those of Arran and Bute, which form one of the

counties.

IRELAND.

167. IRELAND. — The surface of this country is varied by ranges of mountains, and broad extensive plains; the central portion is occupied by a vast level, extending quite from sea to sea. The coast, particularly on the west and south-west, is deeply indented with bays, gulfs, and arms of the ocean, which form some noble harbours. The country is fertile, and, though the farms are too much subdivided, and the cultivators poor, it exports large quantities of grain, live stock, salted beef, pork, and linen.

168. Ireland is divided into four large provinces; viz. Ulster northward, Leinster eastward, Munster southward, and Connaught westward; and contained, in 1841, about

8,175,124 inhabitants.

The Province of Leinster contains twelve Counties.

Dublin - Louth - Wicklow- Wexford - Longford	- Dublin. Drogheda. Dundalk. Wicklow. Arklow Wexford Longford.	West Meath { Mullingar. Athlone. King's County- Philipstown. Queen's Co Maryborough. Kilkenny Naas & Athy. Carlow Carlow.
East Meath	- Trim.	Carlow Carlow.

The Province of Ulster contains nine Counties.

Down -	Downpatrick. Newry.	Antrim -	Carrickfergus. Belfast.
Armagh - Monaghan Cavan - Londonderry	- Armagh. - Monaghan - Cavan.	Tyrone - Fermanagh Donegal -	OmaghEnniskillenLifford

The Province of Connaught contains five Counties.

Leitrim -	- Leitrim Roscommon.	Sligo -	- Sligo.
Roscommon		Galway -	- Galway.
Mayo -	- Newport.		

The Province of Munster contains six Counties.

Clare Cork	-	- Cork, Kinsale.		Limerick.Clonmel.
Kerry	-	Tralce. Killarney.	Waterford	- Waterford.

169. Dublin, on the Liffey, is a fine capital, adorned with many handsome public buildings, and containing at present the only university of Ireland. The population is 228 800. Cork and Waterford in the south, Limerick at the mouth of the Shannon, Belfast and Londonderry in the north, are the chief ports and seats of commerce. The principal rivers are the Shannon, the Blackwater, the Boyne, and the Liffey. The principal lakes are Neagh, Erne. and Killarney.

170. The Church of England is the established religion of Ireland; but the great majority of the population are Catholics and Protestant Dissenters. There are two archbishoprics, Armagh and Dublin, and fourteen bishoprics. The northern division of the island has extensive

and valuable manufactures of linen.

FRANCE.

171. This extensive, fertile, and populous country occupies a commanding situation in the centre of Europe; and has always been distinguished by the military prowess

of its armies, the ambitious spirit of its government, the

ingenious but volatile character of its inhabitants.

172. France, being situated in the middle of the temperate zone, enjoys a mild and agreeable climate. The air in the south is considered so very salubrious, that it has become the resort of many invalids from northern countries.

173. The principal mountains are, the Alps, which divide it from Italy; and the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain. In the interior are the Cevennes, and the

mountains of Auvergne.

174. The chief rivers are, the Rhone, the Garonne, the Loire, the Seine, and the Somne. The Rhine is a boundary between France and Germany only on the eastern

side, near Switzerland.

175. Numerous canals have been formed in France within the last few years. The earliest and greatest is the canal of Languedoc, uniting the Garonne with the Mediterranean. Railroads have begun to be formed, but as yet they have not made much progress. Agriculture is not in a very flourishing condition. The wines of France, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, and Bourdeaux (called *Claret*), are the most generally esteemed of any, and are exported to a large amount. Her silk manufactures are superior to those of any other nation; she excels also in woollens, cottons, fine linens, and jewellery. The French exports were valued, in 1846, at 35½ millions, and the imports at 37 millions sterling.

176. Near Toulon are the isles of Hières. Those of Rhé and Belleisle are in the Bay of Biscay. Corsica

gave birth to Buonaparte.

177. France was formerly divided into 32 provinces; but since the revolution of 1789 it has been divided into 86 departments, named after the rivers, the mountains, or other remarkable features. These would be too long to enumerate; but the following is a list of the principal cities, with their population:—



PLACE DE LA CONCORDE, PARIS.



BILLI FIGHT SPAIN



VIENNA.

Cities.		Population	. Cities.		Po	pulation.
Paris -	-	- 909,000	Caen -	-	-	41,000
Lyons -	-	- 150,800	St. Etienne	-	-	41,000
Marseilles	-	- 146,000	Orleans	-	-	40,000
Bourdeaux	-	- 98,700	Rheims	-	-	38,000
Rouen -	-	- 92,000	Toulon	-	-	35,000
Toulouse	-	- 77,000	Montpellier	-	-	35,000
Nantes	-	76,000	Angers	-	-	35,000
Lille -	-	- 72,000	Avignon	-	_	31,000
Strasburg ,		- 57,000	Havre -	-	-	30,000
Amiens	-	- 46,000	Brest -	_	-	29,000
Nismes	-	- 43,000	Versailles	-	_	29,000
Metz -	-	- 42,000	Dijon -	-	-	25,000

Obs. The population exceeds 35,000,000; but, during the reign of Napoleon, the French empire, comprehending Belgium and Piedmont, had more than forty millions.

178. Paris is the largest city in Europe next to London. Many of the streets are narrow and dirty, but the public structures are magnificent. This city was embellished by the Emperor Napoleon with many splendid buildings and triumphal structures, and enriched with immense collections of works of art, amassed in Italy, Germany, Prussia, Holland, and Belgium; but these, after the taking of Paris in 1815, were restored by the allied sovereigns to their lawful owners.

Obs. Paris rises on both sides of the Seine, in a pleasant and healthy situation, with delightful environs. It is divided into three parts; the Town (ville) on the north, the City in the middle, and that part called the University on the south. It is one third smaller than The houses are chiefly built of freestone. The banks of the Seine present noble quays; and the public buildings are not only elegant in themselves, but are placed in open and commanding situa-The Louvre is among the best specimens of modern architecture, and contains still a superb collection of painting and sculpture; the Palais Royal, the Tuileries, and the Luxemburg are also handsome Nôtre Dame Cathedral is a noble Gothic structure; while the church of St. Geneviève, now called the Pantheon, and the Madeleine, are splendid Grecian edifices. The Hospital of Invalids, with the tomb recently erected for Napoleon, the Chamber of Deputies, the Exchange, and the Triumphal Arch, are also highly ornamental. The National Library is considered the largest in the world; and the Garden of Plants contains an almost unrivalled collection of objects of natural history. Paris exceeds London in magnificence, but yields to it in size, cleanliness, and convenience.

179. Lyons ranks second to Paris, and is the greatest seat of the silk manufacture in Europe. This flourishes also at Nismes, which is adorned with some fine Roman In the north, Rouen and St. Quentin have great manufactures of cotton: Amiens and Abbeville of woollen. Lille, on the Belgian frontier, is a large and very strong fortress. Amiens, Rheims, and Strasburg, are adorned with remarkably fine cathedrals. Orleans. Tours, Toulouse, ranked formerly almost as capitals. Havre, at the mouth of the Seine, Nantes of the Loire, and Bourdeaux of the Garonne, have acquired great prosperity by the trade of those rivers. Marseilles, near that of the Rhone, is the chief seat of Mediterranean Toulon is the greatest naval arsenal in that commerce. sea, as Brest is on the ocean. Other ports of consequence are Rochelle, Rochefort, Dieppe, and Dunkirk. Montpellier is noted for the salubrity of its climate.

Obs. In 1788, King Louis the Sixteenth was induced to call an assembly of the States General of the kingdom, which had not been convoked since 1614. This was, in fact, the commencement of that memorable revolution, which, after promising to France a well regulated government, and the enjoyment of rational liberty, was soon sullied by the murder of the king and queen, and by a scene of sanguinary tyranny unparalleled in the history of the civilised world. During the long wars which ensued with all the European states, Buonaparte attained the supreme power, and was crowned emperor of France and king of Italy in 1804. He defeated all the coalitions against him, formed by the other powers, and conquered nearly the whole of the continent of Europe. But his army being overthrown in Russia, in 1812, and driven from Germany in the following year, he was obliged, in 1814, to abdicate his crown, and was allowed to reside in the isle of Elba; upon which the brother of the late king ascended the throne by the name of Louis the Eighteenth, his nephew the Dauphin, called Louis the Seventeenth, being dead. Buonaparte, however, escaped from Elba and returned in 1815, and Louis was obliged to flee to the Netherlands. Buonaparte again ascended the throne; but all the powers of Europe declaring against him, and his army having been totally defeated at Waterloo, he was again obliged to abdicate, and surrendered himself to England. In conformity with a convention between Russia, Great Britain, Austria, and Prussia, he was sent to St. Helena (where he died in 1821), and Louis the Eighteenth again recovered the throne of his ancestors. His successor Charles X., however, having attempted to alter the constitution, was

dethroned in 1830, and Louis Philippe, formerly duke of Orleans, was elected in his room. In the month of February, 1848, Europe was astonished by a Revolution more sudden and unexpected than any recorded in history. A party who, under the name of Reform, had long laboured for republican institutions, seized the opportunity of a popular movement against the ministry to direct its violence against the kingly authority. Louis Philippe, thinking it vain to resist, as he could not rely on the fidelity of the troops, abdicated in favour of his grandson the Count of Paris, and fled to England. The Duchess d'Orleans presented her son to the Chamber of Deputies; but the instigators of the revolt, elated by success, refused any compromise with royalty, and constituted a Provisional Government, which at once declared France a Republic. On the 4th of May the National Assembly of France was opened, and an executive commission was appointed; but in consequence of the dangers which threatened the State from the violence of the extreme party, on the 23rd of June General Cavaignac was nominated dictator, and the next day the streets of Paris were deluged with blood in a struggle between the troops and the populace. After some months of fearful uncertainty and excitement, it was determined that the future government of France should be entrusted to a President elected by universal suffrage for a period of three years, and that there should be a single chamber of representatives elected by the departments. and paid by their constituents.

On the 10th December, 1848, Louis Napoleon Buonaparte, nephew of the emperor Napoleon Buonaparte, was elected, by a large majority, first president of the French Republic; he had previously been permitted to return to France and take his place as representative of the department of the Seine. Under his presidency the country has remained tranquil, and trade and commerce has revived: still there have been many indications of political restlessness which cause uneasy forebodings for the stability of the present condition of

affairs.

RUSSIA.

180. The Russian empire, the most extensive in the world, comprehends a large portion of Europe, all the northern parts of Asia, and a considerable district in North America. The European part of Russia is in general level, scarcely possessing in its interior a single range of mountains. The most distinguishing feature in the appearance of the country is its immense forests, which occupy the northern part, and its extensive steppes or plains in the south.

181. The only considerable mountains are the Ural Chain, running from north to south, and dividing European Russia from Siberia; the chain of Olonetz, near the White Sea; and the mountains in the Crimea.

182. The principal rivers are, the Volga, which, after a winding course of two thousand miles, discharges itself into the Caspian Sea; the Don, the Neva, the Dnieper, the Dniester, and the Dwina: the Vistula is in Poland.

183. The entire population of the empire is about 56½ millions. Of these, forty-four millions are slaves or peasants. Nearly two millions consist of Cossacks, Baschkirs, and colonists, holding their lands on condition of military service. The chief part of the population of European Russia is in a state of bondage, the peasantry being bought and sold with the land. The government has long desired to emancipate the peasants, and the late Emperor Alexander set the example, by setting free those on the estates of the crown; but the prejudices of the nobles, and the ignorance of the peasantry themselves, are obstacles not to be conquered at once, even by an absolute prince. The wealth of the nobles is estimated by the number of their boors or peasants.

184. The extent of European Russia is estimated at

1,650,000 square miles.

Obs. 1. Including the possessions in Poland and the western province of Finland, the empire contains forty-five governments; and these include the ancient states of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, together with the duchy of Courland, Lithuania lying on the southwestern side of Petersburg, and the country of the Don Cossacks. It is bounded, on the north, by the Northern Ocean; on the south, by Austria, the Black and Caspian Seas, and Tartary; on the east, by the Seas of Okhotsk and Kamtschatka, or rather by the Northern Pacific Ocean; and, on the west, by Sweden and the Baltic.

By the partitions of Poland, in 1772, 1793, and 1795, Russia acquired three fifths of that kingdom, with a population of 6,700,000 inhabitants; and, after the overthrow of the power of Buonaparte, the central part of Poland, which he had taken from Prussia and Austria, and formed into the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, was declared by the Allies an independent kingdom, with the Emperor of Russia for king. But in 1832, the Emperor Nicholas decreed that the kingdom of Poland shall henceforth form an integral part of the Russian

empire; so that Poland can no longer be considered as a kingdom. According to a statistical account in 1832, the number of inhabitants in Poland was 3,914,666. By a peace with Persia in 1814, a great portion of the extensive regions which bound the Caspian Sea, on the west, were acquired. In 1827, other acquisitions were made by treaty.

Obs. 2. Since 1812, by treaty with Russia, the boundary of Turkey, on the north-east, is formed by the rivers Pruth and Danube. Hence the whole of Bessarabia, with a great portion of Moldavia, formerly a

part of Turkey, is now, also, included in the Russian empire.

185. The Russian government is despotic. The sovereign has the title of Emperor, Czar, and Autocrat of all the Russias. Siberia is used as a place of banishment, at the pleasure of the sovereign.

186. The climate of Russia in the northern parts is very severe; but in the southern districts, and on the shores of the Black and Caspian Seas it is temperate and

agreeable.

187. The principal towns are, Petersburg, the modern capital, in 59° 56' of north latitude; Moscow (properly Mosqua), the ancient capital; Archangel, a port on the White Sea; Odessa and Cherson, on the Black Sea; Warsaw, the capital of Poland; and Riga, a great port on the Baltic.

St. Petersburg, the imperial residence, was founded by the Czar Peter the Great, in 1703, in a low marshy spot of ground on the river Neva. Of all the capital cities of Europe it is that which at the first sight strikes the eye of a stranger with the greatest surprise; the breadth and cleanliness of the streets, the elegance of the buildings, the noble canals, and the regularity of the edifices on their banks, present a most impressive spectacle. "The united magnificence of all the other cities of Europe," says a modern traveller, "could but equal St. Petersburg; and there is nothing little or mean to offend the sight: all is grand, extensive, wide, and open; and the streets, which are spacious and straight, seem to consist entirely of palaces. The buildings are lofty and elegant; the public structures, quays, piers, ramparts, &c., are all composed of masses of solid granite, calculated to endure for ages. At the origin of the city, and long afterwards, the houses were all of wood, and even at the end of the eighteenth century the proportion of wooden houses to that of houses of stone or brick was as two to one; but this disproportion has greatly diminished; all new houses are of brick, and no wooden house is allowed to be constructed, nor any, if burnt down, to be rebuilt." St. Petersburg contains above 480,000 inhabitants, of whom 20,000 are foreigners.

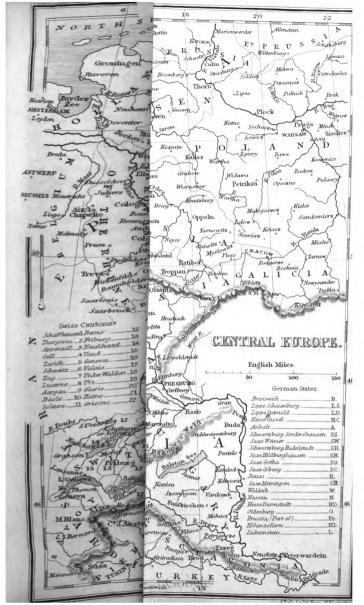
Moscow, the ancient capital, was burnt during the invasion of the French in 1812, but has since been rebuilt. Before that event it contained about 3000 stone houses, and 6900 of wood: only 525 of the former, and 1797 of the latter, escaped; but, as soon as a peace was concluded, the Russians laboured so diligently in repairing the city, that at the death of the Emperor Alexander it was as populous as ever, containing nearly 12,000 houses, 7000 shops, and about 390,000 inhabitants. The churches and chapels, which were 700 before the fire, are now much less numerous, and a great many of the palaces of the nobility have not yet been rebuilt.

188. The Russian empire enjoys the commercial advantages of two inland seas, the Black Sea and the Caspian. It also commands the Baltic, and has maritime establishments on the Northern Pacific Ocean.

189. The inland navigation is extensive, the Baltic and Caspian being connected by canals; and goods may be conveyed by water, with a few interruptions, from Petersburg to the Eastern Ocean. Petersburg on the Baltic, and Odessa on the Black Sea, are the great emporiums of commerce. From these ports vast quantities of wheat, timber, tallow, hemp and flax, potashes, furs, honey and wax, coarse linen, and sail cloth, are exported.

GERMANY.

- 190. Germany comprises all the countries of Central Europe. The surface is much diversified, and presents remarkable contrasts: in the south-east and east it is mountainous; many of the mountain ridges are covered with forests; the largest of these is the Black Forest in Würtemberg. Beyond these mountains, northward to the sea, there extends a vast sandy plain, forming a portion of that great level which reaches from the frontier of Asia to the Bay of Biscay. Its extent is about 250,550 square miles.
- 191. The component parts of this vast region are so numerous and extensive, that we must expect considerable diversities of soil and climate, and consequently great variety of vegetable products. Though occupied by rugged mountains in the south, and sandy plains in the north, the



whole country is, generally speaking, productive; the best soils lie between the rugged elevations in the south and the low flats in the north. There are extensive vineyards in Austria and Hungary; but the wine is of inferior quality; that produced on the banks of the Rhine and its tributaries is in high request. The valleys in the south produce excellent wines and fruits. Upon the plains of the north corn is extensively grown, particularly wheat, which is extensively cultivated in Poland. Austria. and Bavaria, and buck-wheat upon the sandy tracts of North Germany; large quantities are annually exported. Barley and oats are reared throughout the country, and maize abounds in the south districts. Flax is raised in immense quantity, and rape, from which oil is expressed, is also largely grown.

192. The forests, which cover about one-third of the whole surface, supply an abundance of timber for building and for exportation, and also for fuel, both for domestic

purposes and the smelting of ores.

193. The rivers which intersect the country in all directions, are many and important, and amongst the largest in Europe; they constitute an extensive water system, affording great facilities for internal communication. The principal are the Danube, the largest in Europe, flowing through Bavaria, Austria, and Hungary; the Rhine, from Switzerland to Holland; the Elbe, through Prussia and Saxony; the Oder, through Silesia and Brandenburg; the Weser, through Westphalia; the Mayn, through Franconia, into the Rhine. Besides the rivers there are numerous lakes connected with them, such as the lakes of Bavaria and Austria.

194. In the rearing of live stock, hogs form an important feature: it is said that nearly ten millions of them are annually slaughtered, their flesh forming the principal animal food of the inhabitants. Sheep are extensively reared, and their wool, which is of superior quality, is largely exported. Mining is a great source of wealth in Germany; gold, tin, copper, lead, iron, mercury, and cinnabar, cobalt, calamine, arsenic, bismuth, antimony,

magnesia, salt and coal, are produced in several parts. The principal mining districts are in the north-east extremity of the Alps, in the Erzgebirge Mountains in Saxony, and the Hartz Mountains in Hanover.

195. There are upwards of 1,000 mineral springs in the

country, possessing medicinal properties.

196. Manufacturing industry, though considerable, is not progressing. The Germans are unable to withstand the powerful competition of Great Britain, whose superior skill and machinery enable her to undersell rivals in every market. It is with great difficulty the Germans uphold their manufacture of linen fabrics, so long and justly celebrated. The manufacture of cotton fabrics is not increasing. The woollen manufacture, however, is in a flourishing state. Earthenware and glass are extensively made; the latter manufacture is carried to great perfection in Bohemia.

197. The foreign commerce of Germany is limited: it is confined chiefly to the shipping towns of Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen. Internal commerce is carried on by means of the numerous rivers and several lines of railway; and there exists an extensive land trade with Russia, Italy, Switzerland, France, and the Netherlands. The coast on the Baltic is adapted for commerce with Northern Europe, while the ports of Trieste and Fiume, on the Adriatic, trade with the south.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF GERMANY.

198. Austria (Empire, Absolute Monarchy) comprises the provinces of

Chief Towns. Lintz, on the Danube. Upper Austria - Vienna, on the Danube. Lower Austria - Inspruck, on the Inn. Tyrol - Gratz, on the Mur. Styria -Carinthia Klagenfurt. Laybach. Carniola. Trieste, on the N.E. extreme of Illyrian Coast) Adriatic Sea.

Chief Towns.

Bohemia	-	-	-	-	Prague, on the Moldau.		
Moravia	-	-	-	-{	Brunn, on confluence of Schwarra- zwittau.		
Silesia -	-	-	-	-{	Troppaw, on the Oppa, branch of the Oder.		
Galicia - Dalmatia	-	-	-		Cracow, on the Vistula. Lara, on the Adriatic.		
Hungary frontier	with	the	mili	ĺ	Ofen (Buda), on the Danube. Pesth.		
Transylvani	ia -	-	-	-{	Clausenburg, or Kolosver, on Little Szamos.		
Lombardy	-	-	-	-{	Milan, between the Olona and Lambra.		
Venice -	-	-	-	-{	Venice, on islands in N.W. of Adriatic.		
Prussia provinces		ingdo	m, L	imit	ed Monarchy) comprises the		
Prussia Pro	per	-	-	-	Konigsberg, on the Pregel.		
Posen -	-	-	٠.	-{	Posen, at the confluence of Pronza and Warta.		
Brandenbur	g -	-	-	- `	Berlin, on the Spree.		
Pomerania	-	-	-	1.0	Stettin, on the Oder. Breslau, at the confluence of Ohlau		
Silesia -	-	-	-	-}	with Oder.		
Saxony -	-	-	-	-`	Magdeburg, on the Elbe.		
Westphalia	-	-	-	- {	Munster, on the Aa, branch of the Ems.		
Rhine Prov	ince	-	-		Aix-la-Chapelle. Cologne.		
Bavaria Saxony Würtember	- - or	- ,	gdom ,	Lim.	nment. Chief Towns. Mon. Munich, on the Iser. Dresden, on the Elbe. Stuttgard, on Nesen, tribu-		
Hanover	• •		,		" tary of Neckar. Hanover, on the Leine, branch of the Weser.		
The Minor German states are —							
	States		•		nment. Chief Towns. stitu- Carlsruhe, near the Rhine, in		
Baden	Gra	nd Du	chy {		nal. plain of Haardwald.		
Hesse Darn	nstadt	,,,			" { Darmstadt, on the river Darm.		
Hesse Casse	el	Elect	orate		" Cassel, on the Fulda.		

States.	Governmen	t. Chief Towns.
T C 3 Dunker (Constitu-	Luxemburg, on Alzette, tri-
Luxemburg, Grand Duchy {	tional	butary of the Sur.
Mecklenburg Schwerin ,, {	Repre-	Schwerin, on lake Schwerin.
· ·	sentative.	() ·
Mecklenburg Strelitz "	~ ".	Strelitz.
Oldenburg and Kniphausen	Constitu- tional.	Oldenburg, on Hunte, tribu-
υ · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	tionai.	tary of Weser.
Saxe Weimar - "	"	Weimar, on the Ilm.
Holstein - Duchy	"	Gluckstadt, on the Elbe.
Nassau "	,,	Wiesbaden.
Brunswick - "	"	Brunswick, on the Ocker.
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha "	,,	Gotha, on the Seine.
Saxe-Altenburg "	,,	Altenburg, near the Pleisse.
Saxe-Meiningen "	,,	Meiningen, on the Werra.
Anhalt-Dessau }	Repre-	Dessau, on the Muldau.
Aman-Dessau - ,, }	sentative.	Dessau, on the Muldau.
Anhalt-Bernburg "	,,	Bernburg, on the Saale.
Anhalt-Koethen "	,,	Koethen, on the river Ziethe.
Schwartz-Sonderhausen	Absolute.	Sandarhaugen antha Winner
Principality }	Absolute.	Sonderhausen, on the Wipper.
Cohmonta Dadoletoda	Repre-	Dudalstadt on the Smale
Schwartz-Rudolstadt ,, }	sentative.	Rudolstadt, on the Suale.
Hohenzollern-Hechingen "	,,	Hechingen, on the Starzel.
Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	١,,	Sigmaringen, on the Danube.
Tiebametein [Constitu-	Lichtenstein, on the Rha-
Lichtenstein - "	tional.	dutz.
Lippe-Schaumburg "	"	Buckeburg, on the Anc.
Lippe-Detmold . {	Repre-	Detmold, on the Werra.
(sentative.	` ال
Reuss, Elder Branch "	,,	Greitz, on the Elster.
Reuss, Younger Branch,	"	Schleitz
Waldeck	•	Korback, or Corbach, on the
waideck "	" {	Itter.

199. Germany, as we have seen, consists of several kingdoms, grand duchies, duchies, principalities, and free cities, &c., each independent as to the arrangement of its internal affairs; but, in regard to foreign nations, united in a league, called the Germanic Confederation, the objects of which are, the maintenance of the external and internal safety of Germany, and the independence and inviolability of the confederated states.

Obs. The affairs of the Confederation are confided to a Federative Diet, in which all the members may vote by their plenipotentiaries, either individually or collectively, as follows:—

1. Austria; 2. Prussia; 3. Bavaria; 4. Saxony; 5. Hanover; 6. Würtemberg; each four votes. 7. Baden; 8. Hesse-Cassel; 9. Hesse-Darmstadt; 10. Denmark, for Holstein; 11. Holland, for Luxemburg; each three. 12. Brunswick and Nassau; each two. 13. Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz, each two. 14. Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Saxe-Meiningen, and Saxe-Altenburg, each one. 15. Oldenburg, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Köthen, Cohwartzburg-Sondershausen, Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt; each one. 16. Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Lichtenstein, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Waldeck, Elder and Younger Reuss, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe-Detmold, each one. 17. The four free cities of Frankfort, Bremen, Hamburg, and Lubeck, each one: in all sixty-nine votes.

Austria presides in the Federative Diet, which sits at Frankfort. This distribution of votes, reducing the number of members to 17, applies to all ordinary discussions; questions being decided by a majority of the 17 votes: but on extraordinary occasions, the Diet forms itself into a general assembly, in which each state votes individually, and a majority of two thirds of the 69 votes is required for a decision.

200. The Germans are brave, persevering, and industrious. The Protestant religion was first introduced there by Luther, and is professed in most of the northern districts; but the south is generally Catholic. The population of Germany is estimated at about 41 millions.

AUSTRIA.

201. Austria is an extensive empire, having its original seat in Germany; though its largest territories are now beyond the limits of that country. Its sovereign was formerly styled emperor of Germany and king of the Romans, and claimed a certain jurisdiction over the Germanic body; but Napoleon compelled him to renounce these titles, and to content himself with that of Emperor of Austria. On the overthrow of Napoleon, however, he became president of the Diet. Belgium, which had long appertained to Austria, was lost during the war; but she received, in compensation, the territory of Venice.

202. Austria consists now, within Germany, of Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia; without it, of Hungary with its appendages, of Gallicia, and the Italian provinces of

Venice and Lombardy. The population of the whole empire, in 1840, was 36,950,000; and within the limits of the German confederation, 12,000,000. The Catholic religion prevails; but there are nearly 6,000,000 attached to the Greek church, chiefly in Hungary and Gallicia, above 3,000,000 Protestants, and 600,000 Jews.

203. The Archduchy of Austria lies in the south-east of Germany, and consists of a fine plain watered by the Danube, and of the mountainous countries of Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Istria, and the Tyrol. These countries contain upwards of 5,000,000 people. They abound in minerals, particularly mercury. The chief cities are, Vienna, the capital of the empire; Lintz; Gratz, the capital of Styria; and Trieste, the only sea-port, on the Adriatic, with 70,000 inhabitants, and a flourishing trade. The peasantry of the Tyrol are distinguished for bravery.

Obs. Vienna lies on the S.W. side of the Danube, in a fertile plain. The manufactures are little remarkable, though some inland commerce is transacted on the noble stream of the Danube. The number of inhabitants exceeds 330,000. The suburbs are far more extensive than the city, standing at a considerable distance from the walls. The houses are generally of brick, covered with stucco. The chief edifices are, the metropolitan church of St Stephen, the imperial palace, library, and arsenal, the house of assembly for the states of Lower Austria, the council-house, the university, and some monasteries. The Prater, or imperial park, is the principal promenade and place of recreation.

204. Bohemia and Moravia are fertile and highly cultivated countries, in the heart of Germany. The former, in 1840, contained 4,174,000 inhabitants; the latter, with a part of Silesia still belonging to Austria, 2,166,000. Bohemia has extensive manufactures of linen and glass, also some of woollen and cotton. It is surrounded by a circuit of mountains, which are rich in minerals. Prague, the capital, is a handsome old city, with many palaces of the nobility, and 120,000 inhabitants. Brunn, the capital of Moravia, is flourishing, and strongly fortified. Population, 37,000.

205. Hungary, to the east of Austria, is a large kingdom,

containing about 12,000,000 of inhabitants. It consists of a fruitful plain, watered by the Danube and many of its tributaries, and bounded on the north by the Carpa-Its wines, especially Tokay, enjoy the highest reputation; and the mines of Schemnitz and Cremnitz, vielding gold, silver, copper, and iron, are among the richest in Europe. The nobility enjoy great privileges, and are a brave and honourable class of men; but the peasantry are poor, and held in great subjection. In 1848 the Hungarians endeavoured to throw off their allegiance to Austria, but were completely subdued in 1849, by the united powers of Austria and Russia. Buda and Pesth, on opposite sides of the Danube, having together a population of 110,000, now form the conjoint capital, but the states formerly met at Presburg. Transylvania, on the east of Hungary, with two millions of inhabitants, and Croatia, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia, on the south, containing about one million and a half of people, are also subject to Austria.

206. Gallicia forms an extensive plain on the south of Poland, which Austria has wrested from that country by successive partitions. It is generally fruitful in grain, but rudely cultivated; and all the branches of industry are in a depressed state. The salt mines of Wieliczca, however, are the largest in the world, containing long ranges of apartments, and forming a sort of subterranean city. Lemberg is a large old capital, with 58,000 people, of whom about 20,000 are Jews.

207. Lombardy and Venice compose a territory of great extent and value, which forms part of Italy, and will be described along with that country.

Extent, 264,003 square miles. Population, 36,950,000 souls.

PRUSSIA, AND THE OTHER GERMAN KINGDOMS, &c.

208. Prussia is a large kingdom, extending over various parts of Poland and Germany. In 1741 it consisted only of Brandenburg and of Royal and Ducal Prussia. Frederic the Great, an able and ambitious prince, then wrested

Silesia from Austria, and afterwards, by the partition of Poland, acquired a large portion of that country. Prussia has an extensive coast upon the Baltic Sea, and is traversed by very fine rivers—the Rhine, Weser, Elbe, Oder, and Vistula. By these channels she carries on a great trade, exporting from the eastern provinces grain and timber; from the middle, very fine wool; and from those on the Rhine, the valuable wine grown on its banks. By the war which Prussia commenced against France in 1806, she at first lost half her territory, but after the triumph of the combined armies in 1814 she regained nearly all she had lost, with the addition of fresh possessions in Saxony, Westphalia, and the Grand Duchy of the Rhine. The kingdom now consists of the following parts:—

(1.) East and West Prussia. This territory, from which the electors of Brandenburg assumed the title of king, consists of an extensive plain along the Baltic. Great part is covered with wood, but the rest tolerably cultivated. The Vistula, flowing into West Prussia, brings with it most of the trade of Poland. Dantzic, at its mouth, is one of the greatest commercial cities in Europe, and the chief seat of the corn trade. Konigsberg, on the Pregel, capital of East Prussia, is a large and handsome city, with a university. Extent, 26,000 square miles. Population, 2.312.172.

(2.) Posen is an extensive province, obtained in the partition of Poland. It is level, well watered, but ill cultivated, the chief produce being cattle and sheep. Posen is the capital, rather handsome. Extent, 11,800 square miles. Population, 1,233,852.

(3.) Brandenburg, the original possession of the Prussian sovereigns, called then its electors, is a large flat plain, in many parts sandy and unproductive. Though by no means the finest part of the monarchy, it contains Berlin, the capital, which late monarchs have rendered one of the finest cities in Europe. The palace, the Brandenburg gate, and the street called the Lindenstrasse, excite general admiration. There is also a considerable trade, with some flourishing manufactures, and the population, in 1843,

amounted to 300,000. Potsdam, the favourite residence of Frederic the Great, is only a large military post. *Extent*, 15,480 square miles. *Population*, 1,857,097.

(4.) Pomerania, a long flat sandy province on the shore of the Baltic. Though well cultivated, it is not very fruitful; but the Oder conveys to its ports the produce of Silesia and Brandenburg. Stettin is the principal city, with a population of 29,000. Stralsund is a strong and very celebrated fortress. Extent, 12,500 square miles. Population, 1,056,494.

(5.) Silesia, conquered from Austria nearly a century ago, is the most fertile of the provinces; finely diversified with mountains and plains. Its linen manufactures are famous, though somewhat decayed. Breslau, the capital, is large and commercial, with 80,000 people: and there are other thriving, well fortified towns. Extent, 16,300

square miles. Population, 2,858,826.

(6.) Prussian Saxony, to the west of Brandenburg, is composed of a number of detached territories, acquired by conquest and otherwise. They compose generally an extensive plain, watered by the Elbe, and mostly very fruitful. The sheep yield very fine wool. Magdeburg, the capital, with 40,000 inhabitants, is a very strong fortress, famous in history. Extent, 10,076 square miles. Population, 1,637,220.

(7.) Prussian Westphalia is composed of various portions of the great German circle of that name. It is somewhat rough and hilly, watered by the rivers Weser and Lippe. Westphalia hams are in great repute. Munster, once the residence of a sovereign bishop, has 18,000 inhabitants. Extent, 8,270 square miles. Population,

1,383,197.

(8.) The Rhenish provinces consist of two parts; one composed of the united territories of Juliers, Cleves, and Berg; the other called the Lower Rhine. The country watered by the Rhine and the Moselle is mountainous, and finely variegated, presenting the most beautiful scenery. The Rhine wine, called by the generic name of Hock, as well as that of the Moselle, are highly

esteemed. Cologne, with 62,000 inhabitants, is an ancient and noble city, and its cathedral one of the grandest Gothic edifices in Europe. It is the centre of the steam navigation on the Rhine. Aix-la-Chapelle, capital of the empire of Charlemagne, is still greatly frequented on account of its mineral waters. Treves is very ancient, abounding in Roman antiquities. Elberfeld is usually called the Manchester of Germany, from the extent of its manufacturing industry. Düsseldorf is a beautiful city, famous for its picture-gallery, and school of art. Extent, 10,710 square miles. Population, 2,591,650.

209. The king of Prussia has a revenue of 8,000,000*l*. sterling, an army of 160,000 men, and a militia of equal amount. Down to 1848, his prerogative was nearly absolute; but since that period a constitution modelled to some extent on that of England has been introduced. Ample provision has lately been made for the instruction of the people, every child having the means, and being under the obligation, to acquire the elements of education. Prussia has induced the neighbouring states to enter into a commercial union, which comprises Bavaria, Würtemberg, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, Nassau, Frankfort, &c. These states allow a free exchange of goods between each other, but impose heavy duties on those from other countries, particularly on British manufactures.

210. Bavaria, next to Austria and Prussia, is the most important state. It was raised from an electorate into a kingdom by Napoleon in 1805, and received great additions to its territory in 1815. It is bounded by the Austrian States, Würtemberg, and Saxony, contains above four millions of inhabitants, and enjoys a representative constitution.

211. Munich, the capital, with 104,000 inhabitants, and the seat of a university, has been embellished, during the last and the present reigns, with several public buildings of great beauty and magnificence; and, under the patronage of the reigning sovereign, its already splendid collections of works of ancient and modern art bid fair to give it in this respect the first rank among German cities. This

kingdom also includes the cities of Nuremberg, formerly famous for arts, manufactures, and inland trade, still populous, and well built, Ratisbon (*Regensburg*), Augsburg, Würzburg, and Erlangen: the two latter are seats of universities.

212. The electorate of Saxony was created a kingdom by Napoleon, after his conquest of Prussia. He annexed to it also the duchy of Warsaw in Poland, but after his defeat in 1814, Saxony was stripped of that, and of several of its German territories. It contains now only 1,706,000 inhabitants, who are industrious and enlightened.

213. The capital of Saxony is Dresden, with 66,000 inhabitants; one of the finest cities in Germany; celebrated for its splendid collection of paintings, statues, &c. formed by the taste of its sovereigns, who have been munificent patrons of the fine arts. The finest porcelain in Europe is manufactured here. Leipzig, with 54,000 inhabitants, is also a very flourishing town, famous for its fairs, where the whole book trade of Germany is carried on.

214. Würtemberg is another of Napoleon's kingdoms, and the smallest in Germany. Its capital is Stutgard, and it contains also the ancient city of Ulm, and Tubingen, with a university. It enjoys a representative constitution.

Population, 1,701,000.

215. Hanover has also been changed from an electorate into a kingdom. It is mostly a level plain, somewhat heathy and barren, but having on the south-east border a remarkable mountain chain called the Hartz. In 1714, George, the elector, became king of Great Britain, and the two countries remained attached till the accession of Queen Victoria, when, as Hanover could not be governed by a female, her uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, succeeded to the throne. The population is 1,755,000. Hanover, an ancient city, with 30,000 inhabitants, is the capital. Emden and Stade, on the Elbe, are the chief ports. Göttingen is the seat of one of the most renowned universities of Europe: its library is most valuable. Clausthal, a considerable town on the Hartz,

is the centre of the mining district. Osnabrück gave the title of bishop to the late Duke of York.

216. Germany contains many smaller states of some imnortance. Of these the chief are, Baden, on the borders of Switzerland, comprising the mountainous territory called the Black Forest, and including, besides Carlsruhe the capital, the beautiful city of Mannheim, Heidelberg, with an university and noble castle, and Baden-Baden, much frequented for its hot baths, in a most picturesque country. It is governed by a Grand Duke, and has a representative constitution. Population, 1,290,000. - Hesse-Cassel, a well cultivated, though hilly and woody territory in the north, with a population of 728,000. It is governed by an Elector (the only one of the German sovereigns who has retained this title), and has a representative consti-Cassel, on the Fulda, with 30,000 inhabitants, is tution. an elegant city, with valuable collections in literature and art. — Hesse-Darmstadt, fertile and finely wooded, containing 811,000 inhabitants, is a territory on the Rhine. governed by a Grand Duke, and includes the fine ancient city of Mentz, or Mayence. — Brunswick, famous for the bravery of its dukes, from whose house the British royal family is descended. Its capital of the same name has a splendid palace, and its opera is one of the best in Germany. - Weimar, whose chief city of the same name was formerly considered the literary capital of Germany, from being the residence of Goëthe, Schiller, Wieland, Herder, and other eminent poets and philosophers. At Jena there is a celebrated university. - Nassau, west of the Rhine, is a most picturesque country; its baths at Wis-Schlangenbad, Ems, Schwalbach, &c., attract numerous visitors. - Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Mecklenburg-Strelitz; the last of which, though small, has given two queens to England. Oldenburg also deserves notice. from its high family alliances, particularly with Russia. Saxe-Coburg Gotha is in this respect still more distinguished, by the connection of its princes with Great Britain, Belgium, France, and Portugal, and most of the royal houses of Europe. His royal highness Prince

Albert is the second son of the late duke of this principality. There is a great number of very small principalities, which are found enumerated in the list of the German Confederation.

217. The free cities of Germany, formerly very numerous and flourishing, are now reduced to four; namely, Hamburg, Frankfort, Lubeck, and Bremen. Hamburg, at the mouth of the Elbe, with 150,000 inhabitants, and the greatest commercial city of Germany. It was devastated, in 1842, by a conflagration, to which the great fire in London affords almost the only parallel in modern times, but has since been rebuilt on a much greater scale of grandeur and convenience than before. Frankfort, on the Mayn, with 66,000 inhabitants, a great seat of inland trade, and the place where the Diet assembles. Lubeck, once the head of a great maritime confederacy, called the Hanse Towns, but now having only some trade with countries on the Baltic. Bremen, a flourishing sea-port at the mouth of the Weser, with about 50,000 inhabitants.

SPAIN.

218. Spain is remarkable for its fine climate, soil, and commanding geographical and commercial situation. The coast line is of great extent. The interior is traversed by long and lofty ranges of mountains, which run generally in distinct and parallel lines, from east to west, the principal of which are the Cantabrian, Castilian, Sierra de Toledo, Sierra Morena, Sierra Nevada, and the Celtiberian mountains. Between these ridges there are extended plains. On the south there are plains which descend almost to the level of the Mediterranean; they display great luxuriance of vegetation, and abound in all the choicest fruits of a southern climate. The Pyrenees separate France from Spain.

219. Spain is divided into fourteen districts, or provinces, containing upwards of 12,000,000 of inhabitants. The southern provinces are among the most fertile tracts in Europe; but the country has latterly, through oppres-

sion and superstition, become comparatively poor. Efforts have of late been made to improve it; but they have been much obstructed by civil war and dissension. Its surplus products consist of very fine wool, wine, silk, and barilla.

220. Its chief towns are, Madrid, the capital, containing a population of about 230,000. It stands on an elevated plain. The palaces and other public buildings are splendid, and adorned with very fine paintings; but the city has on the whole a gloomy aspect. The convents amounted formerly to 66; but many of them have been suppressed. The Prado is a spacious promenade, on which the great display their elegant equipages. ranks next, and though it has much declined, contains a magnificent cathedral and other edifices. Cadiz is the chief seat of trade, exporting goods valued at above a million. Malaga, Alicant, Valencia, and Barcelona are large commercial cities on the shores of the Mediter-Granada and Cordova contain most splendid monuments, erected by Moorish princes, who formerly reigned there. Saragossa is distinguished for the bravery its inhabitants displayed in two sieges by the French. Salamanca has a celebrated university.

221. The principal rivers are, the Tagus, the Douro,

the Ebro, the Guadalquivir, and the Guadiana.

Obs. The decline of Spain has been dated from the time when the discovery of America by Columbus gave it the possession of immense territories, abounding in gold and silver. These vast countries have now declared themselves independent, and are for ever lost to Spain, which at present retains only the great islands of Cuba and Porto Rico.

222. Gibraltar, on a rock at the entrance of the Mediterranean, was captured in 1704 by the English, who have rendered it nearly impregnable; and it serves as an entrepôt of Mediterranean trade, and a naval station in time of war.

223. Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera, called the Balearic Isles, are situated off the east coast of Spain. Port Mahon, in Minorca, is noted for its fine harbour.

PORTUGAL

224. Portugal forms the most western part of the Spanish peninsula, and is bounded by the Atlantic. It is mountainous, and is watered by the Tagus, the Douro, and the Mondego. There are no natural features by which this country can be distinguished from Spain—the mountains are the prolongations of those of Spain, and the rivers are the wide terminations of the Spanish streams in their progress to the ocean. The general aspect is said to be very luxuriant, in many parts presenting picturesque and fertile valleys. It is divided into six provinces.

225. Portugal was once a powerful state, especially by sea; but tyranny and the indolence and superstition of the inhabitants have greatly reduced its importance. The population is about three millions and a half; and the great majority are Roman Catholics. Wine and salt are

the chief exports.

226. The chief towns are, Lisbon, the capital, finely situated on the Tagus; and Oporto, at the mouth of the Douro, whence port wine is exported to the extent of 30,000 or 40,000 pipes. Lisbon suffered severely by an earthquake in 1755. Coimbra, in which is the only Portuguese university, was formerly the capital. merce of Portugal was at one period most extensive, but is now inconsiderable: it is carried on chiefly with Great Britain and the Portuguese colonies, of which there are Goa, Diu, and Macao in the East Indies; and Madeira, a fine island in the Atlantic, possessing a most salubrious climate, and producing in great abundance an excellent wine, which bears its name. In the Atlantic, about a thousand miles from the coast of Europe, are the Azores, or Western Islands, also belonging to Portugal: they are subject to storms and sometimes to earthquakes; the soil is fertile, and the climate temperate. Off the north-west coast of Africa lie the Cape Verde Islands, the soil of which is barren, and the climate hot and unwholesome. Large quantities of salt are annually exported.

227. The immense region of Brazil, in South America, once belonged to Portugal, but it is now an independent state under the title of empire.

HOLLAND.

228. The kingdom of Holland consists of a territory which is in general an unvaried level; though flat, the aspect is agreeable. A great part of the surface is beneath the level of the sea, but the Dutch have with immense labour constructed dykes, which exclude the waters, and convert the space originally taken from the sea into fertile fields. The principal rivers of Holland are the Rhine and the Maese or Meuse. The canals are very numerous, connecting almost every village, and serving for travelling

and the conveyance of goods.

229. During the reign of Philip II. Holland threw off the yoke of Spain, and became a flourishing republic under the title of the Seven United Provinces. The country, however, being overrun, in 1795, by the French revolutionary armies, was formed, first, into the Batavian Republic, and then into the kingdom of Holland under Louis, brother of Napoleon. On the triumph of the allied armies in 1814, Holland was united with the Belgic provinces to form the kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1830, however, Belgium revolted, and established itself into a separate kingdom; and Holland thus retains little more than the original territory of the United Provinces.

230. It now consists of the following provinces, which, with their population and capital cities, are here given from accounts in 1843:—

Provinces.			Population.			P	opulation.
Holland, North	-	-	541,000	Amsterdam	-	-	
, South	-	-	456,000	Rotterdam	-	-	70,000
Zealand -	-	-	154,000	Middleburg	-	-	12,000
Utrecht -	-	-	147,000	Utrecht -	-	-	34,000
North Brabant	-	-	378,000	Breda -	-	-	13,000
Guelders -	-	-	354,000	Nimeguen -	-	-	12,000
Friesland with	}	-	310,000	Leuwarden	-	-	18,000



Overyssel Groningen Limburg (part) - Luxemburg (part)	-		Deventer - Groningen Maestricht Luxemburg	:	:	9,000 28,000 21,000 10,000
	-	3,101,000				

231. Amsterdam, once a collection of fishermen's huts, offers to the traveller an interesting proof of what the industry and perseverance of man can accomplish. Its largest streets, of which there are three, forming semicircles towards the land, called Graats, have broad canals running through them, with rows of trees on each side, and a good coach-road. This mode of arranging the streets is common in other parts of Holland, and offers a great facility to its commerce. The chief edifices are, the stadt-house, founded on piles at an immense expense, the exchange, and the post-office.

Obs. The Hague, in South Holland, with 58,000 inhabitants, which, from its appearance, is generally styled the largest village in the world, is the residence of the sovereign, and contains a handsome palace. Rotterdam, near the mouth of the Maese, the chief outlet of the Rhine, commands the navigation of that great river, and is visited by numerous ships of every description. Leyden, in South Holland, is famous for its defence against the Spaniards, in 1574, when the inhabitants, opening their sluices, inundated the enemies' camp and the country round. The University was one of the first in Europe, Haarlem is noted for its bleach-fields and flower-gardens, and for its organ, long the most powerful in the world; Delft for the ware bearing its name; Gouda for cheese and tobacco-pipes.

232. The soil is too moist for grain, but affords very rich pastures, from which excellent butter and cheese are made and exported. The Dutch are the best gardeners in Europe; and particularly curious in flowers, having been known to pay 700l. for a single tulip. Their chief manufactures are linen, and the esteemed spirit named gin or hollands.

233. The commerce of Holland was long more extensive than that of any country in the world; but it was almost crushed by the tyranny of Napoleon, though it has since, in a great measure, revived. The Dutch carry on the

whale and herring fisheries, though not on the same great scale as formerly: but they are still a source of great wealth. They are cleanly, frugal, and industrious: they mostly profess the Protestant religion, under the Presbyterian form, but grant full toleration to all other persuasions.

BELGIUM.

234. Belgium is a flat country, and may be regarded as a continuation of Holland. Except on the south-west frontier, the whole country is under high cultivation. It rivals Holland as to canals; and a most complete system of railways has lately been formed across it in every direction.

235. The Belgic provinces joined with the Dutch in the revolt against Philip II., but were subdued by the Prince of Parma, and afterwards united to Austria, under the title of the Netherlands, or Low Countries. After being overrun by France in 1794, and incorporated with that country, they were, in 1814, combined with Holland, to form the kingdom of the Netherlands; but by their revolt in 1830 were formed into a separate kingdom, of which Leopold, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, was chosen sovereign. Belgium is divided into the following provinces; the population of which, in 1842, with that of their capitals, is here shown.

Provinces.		Population.	Cities.				Population.
South Brabant		625,000	Brussels	-	-	-	104,700
Antwerp -		374,000	Antwerp	-	-	-	77,600
Flanders, West		648,000	Bruges	-	-	-	44,700
, East		778,000	Ghent	-	-	-	93,400
Hainault -		662,000	Mons	-	-	-	20,400
Liege -		413,000	Liege	-	-	-	64,000
Namur -		240,000	Namur	-	-	-	20,600
Limburg (part)		171,000	Tongres	-	-	-	8,286
Luxemburg (par		176,000	_				•
0 (1	•						

4,087,000

236. Brussels is one of the most elegant cities of Europe, both for situation and edifices. The park, the promenade called the Green Alley, and several churches, form its chief ornaments. It has valuable manufactures of lace. carpets, and other articles. Antwerp, once the chief seat of commerce in northern Europe, had greatly declined, but is now somewhat revived. Its cathedral, above 500 feet high, is the finest Gothic edifice in the world, and adorned with the best Flemish pictures. Ghent and Bruges flourished at a still earlier period, and continue to be large cities. Louvain is noted for its university. Mechlin is the centre of the great system of railroads with which the country is intersected. It is celebrated also for its lace manufactures and a fine cathedral. Liege and Namur are large manufacturing towns on the Meuse. Ostend is a thriving seaport.

237. Belgium was formerly unrivalled as a seat of commerce and manufactures, and still is so in those of lace and cambrics. Nearly the whole population is Catholic,

though Protestants are tolerated.

DENMARK.

238. The kingdom of Denmark consists of the islands of Zealand, Funen, &c.; the peninsula of Jutland; the duchies of Holstein, Sleswick, and Lauenburg; and the remote islands of Iceland and Faroe, with West Greenland. The whole surface is nearly flat, particularly the islands. A remarkable feature in the aspect of the country is the number of shallow lakes or lagoons by which the peninsular of Jutland is intersected.

Obs. At the close of the last war, Denmark was compelled to cede the kingdom of Norway to Sweden; but by the definitive treaty, the little province of Lauenburg in Germany, which was detached from Hanover, was given in exchange.

239. Its chief town, Copenhagen, is in the island of Zealand. The city is well built and strongly fortified; the public buildings are numerous, and many of them

superb; the educational, literary, and scientific establishments rank among the first class. At the castle of Elsinore, in the strait called the Sound, foreign ships trading to the Baltic formerly paid a small toll. Altona is an important commercial city.—Kiel is a handsome, wellbuilt, thriving, town. Its university has had many distinguished men among its professors. The trade is considerable.

240. The narrow sea situated between Zealand and Funen is called the *Great Belt*; and that between Funen and the continent is named the *Little Belt*.

241. Iceland, an appendage of the Danish crown, is an island in the North Atlantic Ocean, distinguished for its boiling springs, volcanoes, and other indications of subterraneous fires. Hecla, a lofty mountain, is the principal volcano. The general aspect of the country is the most desolate and dreary imaginable. The island is traversed in all directions by ranges of lofty mountains, continually covered with ice and snow, beneath which there burns a perpetual fire. The island appears to have been upheaved by volcanic agency from the bottom of the sea. The inhabitants are poor, but virtuous and intelligent. They depend for food upon the abundance of fish which the seas afford.

242. The western coast of Greenland is famous for its whale-fishery; but this is chiefly carried on by other nations: and Denmark has only a few small settlements on the coast. In the West Indies, Denmark possesses the small but well-cultivated island of St. Croix, and in the East Indies the settlements of Tranquebar and Serampore.

243. The supreme government is conducted under the king, by a privy council, and by departments or colleges, each having a minister at its head.

 $\it Extent$, exclusive of Iceland and the Faroe Isles, 22,000 square miles.

Population, in 1840, 2,194,950.



STOCKHOLM



LAPLANDERS



BERLIN.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

244. The kingdom of Sweden now includes the extensive, but cold and thinly inhabited countries, bounded by the Baltic, the Gulf of Bothnia, and the Northern Ocean. Sweden is a barren country, remarkable for the number and extent of its lakes and woods. Its rivers are numerous; but few are navigable. Towards the north, about its middle region, Sweden has only two seasons; nine months' winter, and three months' summer, during which vegetation is wonderfully rapid. Its agriculture has of late been greatly improved.

245. The Swedish islands are numerous; but those constituting the archipelago of Aland have been ceded to Russia. In the Baltic Sea there are no tides; but a

current mostly sets from it into the North Sea.

246. Lapland, the most northern part of Europe, and of the kingdom of Sweden, contains immense forests, chiefly of fir trees, and scanty pastures, which nourish only the rein-deer.

- 247. The Laplanders are of diminutive size, but peaceable and industrious. The milk of the rein-deer supplies them with food; and in sledges drawn by those animals they pass with the utmost rapidity over ice and snow.
- Obs. 1. In the northern parts of Lapland, as in countries under the same latitude, the sun is absent in winter about seven weeks, while in summer it never sets for the same period.
- 2. These phenomena are explained and illustrated in the Problems on the Globes and Maps. See a subsequent page of this work.
- 248. Exclusive of Norway and Lapland, Sweden is divided into Sweden Proper, Gothland, and West Bothnia. These are subdivided into numerous provinces, which include the islands of Gottland and Œland, in the Baltic.
- 249. The chief towns are, Stockholm, the capital, in 59° 20′ of north latitude; Upsal, famous for its university; Gothenburg, a celebrated trading port; and Carlscrona, the naval port and arsenal.

Obs. Stockholm occupies seven small rocky islands, and the scenery around is truly singular and romantic. Most of the houses are of

stone, or brick, covered with white stucco; except in the suburbs, where several are of wood painted red. The royal palace stands in a central and high situation: and there are a castle, an arsenal, and several academies. The population is estimated at 80,000.

250. The chief wealth of Sweden consists in its mines of iron and copper. The copper mines are very spacious.

- 251. Norway, formerly subject to Denmark, was united to Sweden by the treaty of Kiel, in 1815. It is composed of a continuous range of mountains, whose sides slope down to the sea; and the streams and cataracts which roll down their steeps render travelling very unsafe. On the coast of Norway are innumerable small islands, occupied by birds and some few fishermen; and on the north is a dangerous vortex of the sea, called the Maēlstrom.
- 252. The inhabitants raise scarcely any grain or vegetables, but import them in exchange for their timber and fish. In the inland and northern parts the people live on coarse fare, and in seasons of scarcity are sometimes obliged to mix bark of trees with their bread.
- 253. Norway contains valuable forests of fir, which forms its chief export. It has also extensive fisheries, with valuable quarries, and mines of silver and other metals; these it exchanges for corn and other necessaries.

254. The chief towns are Christiania, the seat of a university, Bergen, and Drontheim.

Extent. Norway - - 195,000 square miles.

Extent. Norway - - 145,000

Population in 1839. Sweden - - 3,111,000

1840. Norway - - 1,243,700

Total - 4,354,700

SWITZERLAND.

255. The surface of this country may be considered an epitome of the sublime and beautiful of nature. The gigantic Alps rise boldly above the clouds; their snow-clad summits and icy pinnacles glittering amidst the region

of storms. Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe, is on the immediate border of Switzerland. Within it, Monte Rosa, Schreckhorn, Jungfrau are scarcely inferior. Simplon, St. Gothard, and Pilate are smaller, but form striking objects. These splendid mountains enclose deep navigable lakes, remarkable for the purity of their waters, such as the lakes of Geneva, Lucerne, Constance, Neufchâtel, and Zurich, which are distinguished for their picturesque beauty.

256. From these mountains masses of ice, called *glaciers*, descend, and settle on the lower fields. Sometimes enormous masses of snow, called *avalanches*, rush down, and

overwhelm houses, and even villages.

257. The long narrow valleys abound with cultivated fields and vineyards, whilst upon the sides of the mountains there are forests of almost every kind of trees; in short, nearly all the vegetable products of the different zones of continental Europe are found in this romantic country.

258. The chief rivers flowing through Switzerland are the Aar, the Reuss, and the Limmat; and it contains the sources of the Rhine and the Rhone, two of the largest

rivers in Europe.

259. Switzerland is remarkable for the simplicity of its inhabitants, and for their love of liberty. It is divided into twenty-two cantons; which are Berne, Geneva, Basle, Zurich, Zug, Friburg, Aargau, Soleure, Schaffhausen, Gall, Appenzell, Glaris, Thurgovia, Vaud, Valais, Grisons, Ticino, Neufchâtel, Schweitz, Lucerne, Uri, and Unterwalden. The last four are called the Forest Cantons.

260. The principal towns are Berne, Basle, Zurich, Lucerne, Friburg, Geneva, Lausanne, and Neufchâtel. Most of these are beautifully situated. The last-named town formerly belonged to Prussia.

261. The country is too rugged to produce much grain; but it has rich pastures, and exports cattle and cheese. There are considerable manufactures of cotton, linen,

and watches.

262. The Swiss cantons are united in a confederacy for mutual defence, regulated by an annual diet, presided by a landamann. The military contingent is 33,000 men.

Extent, 18,670 square miles. Population, 2,150,000.

ITALY.

263. The surface of this vast peninsula is more finely diversified than that of perhaps any other country upon the globe. On the north it is bounded by the lofty Alpine chain. Through it run the Apennines, the southern extremity of which assumes a volcanic character. Vesuvius is a celebrated volcano near Naples, whose eruptions have buried whole cities, as Herculaneum and Pompeii, which have been dug into, and found almost entire. Etna, in Sicily, is a still higher volcano, which has emitted ashes to the distance of eighty miles.

264. The rivers are numerous, but they are of no considerable extent; the principal are the Po and the Adige, which pass through Lombardy; the Arno, by Florence; the Tiber, by Rome; the Lirio, in Naples. The principal lakes are the Lago Maggiore, and those of Como and Garda, at the foot of the Alps; those of Perugia and Celano, in the Apennines. Its capes are, Spartivento, Colonna, Leuca, Otranto, and Testa. Its gulfs are, the Adriatic, sometimes called a sea, the Gulf of Taranto, and the Gulf of Genoa.

265. The kingdom of Naples occupies the south of Italy. It is one of the finest countries in Europe, and tolerably cultivated, yielding in abundance wine, oil, and silk. The population, in 1843, was 6,238,000, making, with Sicily, upwards of 8,230,000. The city of Naples, after Constantinople, is the most beautiful capital in the world. The number of the inhabitants is about 380,000, of whom nearly 30,000 have no settled habitation or employment, but ply in the streets, ready to perform any labour for the most trifling recompense. This is the class called lazzaroni.

266. Sicily, once considered the finest island of Europe, has a mountainous aspect, but includes tracts of luxuriant fertility. It contained anciently rich and powerful states, but is now much neglected, though some improvements have been lately made. Wines, fruits, sulphur, and shumac are exported. Palermo is a handsome capital, with 140,000 people. Messina, though nearly destroyed by earthquake in 1783, revived, and carries on much traffic. Syracuse, the great ancient capital, offers nothing remarkable; but Catania and Girgenti show remains of splendid edifices, built when they formed independent republics. The island of Sicily forms part of the kingdom of Naples, whose sovereign is officially styled the king of the two Sicilies.

267. The island of Sardinia, to the west of Italy, is extensive, but rugged and poorly cultivated. The capital is Cagliari. The king of Sardinia possesses also Piedmont, a fine plain at the foot of the Alps, with Turin, a hand-some capital, in the finest possible situation, containing 114,000 inhabitants; Savoy, a rugged and mountainous country; and the territory of Genoa, once a great and flourishing republic, which was ceded to him by the congress of Vienna, in 1815. The population of his dominions exceeds four millions and a half.

268. The States of the Church, or the Papal States, are placed in the centre of Italy, extending from sea to sea, and crossed by the Apennines. They contain many fertile and extremely beautiful districts, but on the whole are ill cultivated, and the people oppressed. The population is 2,730,000. Rome, in latitude 41° 54' north, was once the most powerful city in the civilised world, but has It still, however, contains the most greatly declined. splendid monuments of architecture, sculpture, and painting, that adorn any modern city, and these render it the crowded resort of enlightened visitants. By the last census, its population was 153,000. The country round is ill-cultivated and unhealthy. Bologna, once a flourishing republic, and Ferrara, where the princes d'Este held a brilliant court, are still handsome old cities; the former adorned with many fine paintings. Ancona is the chief

sea-port.

269. Tuscany is a beautiful and fruitful territory, comprising the Vale of Arno. It is ruled by a grand duke, and has 1,500,000 inhabitants. The capital, Florence, has been long a distinguished seat of literature and arts; Pisa, once a great independent republic, is still adorned with noble edifices; and Leghorn carries on most of the commerce of Italy.

270. Austrian Italy, called also the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, consists of a magnificent plain, watered by the Po and its tributaries, and in the highest state of cultivation. It produces rice, the finest raw silk in the world. and a cheese esteemed above any other. Milan, with 145,000 inhabitants, was the capital of Napoleon's kingdom of Italy; and its duomo, or cathedral, of white marble, is the finest Gothic edifice in that country. Venice is one of the most beautiful cities in Europe, being situated on seventy islands in the Adriatic, with long rows of palaces. bordering on canals, along which the inhabitants pass in ornamented barges, called gondolas. Since becoming subject to Austria, it has declined; but still contains 100.000 inhabitants. Here are, also, Verona, Padua, Mantua, Brescia, and other large towns.

271. The Duchy of Lucca is a small state of central Italy: it is chiefly an agricultural district. This territory was early distinguished by its culture of the silk manufacture. The inhabitants are generally very poor. The government is a limited monarchy, under a duke, who exercises the executive power, nominates the ministers, and all public officers. Napoleon united Lucca with Piombino in a principality, and in 1814 the congress of

Vienna erected it into a duchy.

272. Parma and Placentia are valuable territories, which, though granted to the ex-empress of France, may be considered part of Austrian Italy. These two territories now belong to the Duchy of Lucca, the ex-empress, the archduchess Maria Louisa, widow of Napoleon, having died on 17th December, 1847. Population 440,000.

Modena, a fief of Austria, governed by a duke, has

350,000 inhabitants, with a handsome capital.

273. Monaco is a small principality of North Italy, under the protection of the king of Sardinia. The inhabitants, amounting to about 7.500, are chiefly occupied with agriculture, fishing, and petty coasting. Large quantities of oranges, lemons, and other fruits are produced. principality was founded in the tenth century. reigning prince is a peer of France.

274. San Marino, a republic of Italy, is the smallest as well as the most ancient state in Europe. The inhabitants are occupied in agriculture, cattle breeding, or in the manufacture of silk. The government is vested in a senate of sixty members elected for life. Napoleon offered to increase the territory of the republic.

but this was wisely declined.

275. The small but important island of Malta belonging to Great Britain, lies about sixty miles south of Sicily, and is celebrated for its fine port, and for the strength of its fortifications. Elba, an island of Tuscanv, was the retreat of the Emperor Napoleon, when he abdicated the throne of France in 1814.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

276. Several mountain ranges spread over the surface of this country, dividing it into rich fertile plains. chief mountains are, Hæmus, or the Balkan, a long lofty range, which forms a barrier against Russia; Pindus and Olympus, in Thessaly; Mount Athos, celebrated in classic history, now inhabited by a number of monks and hermits.

277. The Turkish islands were very numerous; but most of them are annexed to the new state of Greece, and the only important one which she retains is Candia, a fertile island, anciently celebrated and powerful under the name of Crete.

- 278. But a small portion of the Turkish empire is embraced in European Turkey. It is a fine and fertile region, anciently very flourishing; but, owing to the Mahometan religion, to the despotism of the government, and to the ignorant policy of the Turks, now declining and miserable.
- Obs. The government is despotic under the grand Signior. The provinces are governed by pachas, many of whom are nearly independent of their imperial master, and use their power to rob and oppress the inhabitants.
- 279. The principal provinces are Bulgaria, Rumelia, which includes the ancient Macedonia and Thessaly, and the extensive territories which constitute Albania. The principalities of Moldavia, Wallachia, Bosnia, and Servia, along the Danube, were formerly governed by princes appointed by the Porte, to whom they paid tribute; but they are now mostly either independent, or under the power of Russia.
- 280. The metropolis of Turkey is Constantinople, finely situated in 41° north latitude, between the Sea of Marmora and the Black Sea, the third city in Europe in point of magnitude, and one of the most important in the world.
- Obs. The beauty of the situation of Constantinople can hardly be exceeded, the aspect from the sea being peculiarly grand; but on a nearer approach, the wooden hovels and narrow streets disappoint the splendid expectations of the stranger. It forms an unequal triangle, resembling a harp, being about twelve or fourteen English miles in circumference, enclosed by walls, and on two sides by the sea and the harbour called the Golden Horn. The inhabitants are computed at 550,000, including the four suburbs. Of these 300,000 are Turks, 150,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks. The most celebrated edifices are the Seraglio, and the mosque of St. Sophia. The principal entrance of the Seraglio is styled Capi, or the Porte, which gives name to its court and government.
- 281. Adrianople is the second city in European Turkey. Salonica has a great commerce. Schumla, Silistria, Nicopolis, and Belgrade are strong frontier fortresses. The chief river in European Turkey is the Danube.



CONSTANTINOPLE



SLAVE MARKET



ROME.

GREECE.

282. This celebrated country no longer possesses the extent of surface she held in the days of her prosperity and magnificence; her territory has been diminished, and her monuments of classic ages obliterated by the torrent of Ottoman conquest.

283. Greece was respected by the Romans, its first conquerors; but the Turks, who held it for three centuries, reduced it to a state of cruel bondage. About a quarter of a century ago, however, the Greeks made a brave stand for their independence; and being supported by the great Christian powers, they compelled Turkey to withdraw her claims, and their country was formed into a small constitutional kingdom, in 1829.

284. The new state of Greece comprehends the Morea (the ancient Peloponnesus), with the territory of the ancient Attica and Thebes, as far south as the Gulfs of Arta and Volo, together with the islands of Negropont, Hydra, and the Cyclades. The surface of the whole country is mountainous and contains but few plains. The population is not supposed to exceed 900,000; but it is expected to increase under a free government. Otho, prince of Bavaria, has been chosen king.

285. Athens, the modern, as it was the ancient, capital, was almost ruined during the revolution, but it is in a great degree restored, and contains about 26,000 inhabitants. It is adorned by ruins of the Parthenon, the Temple of Jupiter, and other edifices erected during the golden age of Greece, and considered the finest in the world. Thebes, Corinth, and Sparta are now only villages. The chief modern towns are Tripolizza, Napoli di Romania, Navarino, Patras, and Missolonghi.

THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

286. On the west of Greece lies the republic of the Seven, or the Ionian Islands, consisting of Corfu, Santa

Maura, Cephalonia, Ithaca, Zante, Cerigo, and Paxo, having an independent government, but under the military protection of Great Britain. These islands are rugged, but very fertile, abounding in fruit, especially currants, for which Zante is famous.

ANDORRE.

287. This little republic occupies three mountain valleys, the wildest and most beautiful of the Pyrenean chain; it is well watered by numerous small rivers. Only a portion of the land is fit for cultivation; there are some excellent pasture lands sheltered by forests of fir.

COMMERCIAL MARITIME CITIES AND TOWNS.

288. Archangel, on the White Sea. Petersburg, on the river Neva. Revel, on the Gulf of Finland. Riga, on the Gulf of Riga. Memel, on the Baltic Sea. Königsberg, on the Gulf of Dantzic. Dantzic, on the Vistula. Rostock, on the Baltic Sea. Copenhagen, on the Island of Zealand. Stockholm, on Lake Mälar. Gottenburg, on the Gotha. Christiania, on Christiania Bay. Bergen, on the North Sea. London, on the Thames. Liverpool, on the Mersey. Bristol, on the Bristol Channel. Hull, on the Humber. Newcastle, on the Tyne. Glasgow, on the Clyde. Greenock, on the Clyde. Leith, on the Firth of Forth. Aberdeen, on the Dee.

Dundee, on the Firth of Tay. Montrose, on the Esk. Dublin, on the Liffey. Belfast, on Carrickfergus Bay. Cork, on the Lee. Limerick, on the Shannon. Hamburg, on the Elbe. Bremen, on the Weser. Amsterdam, on the Amstel. Rotterdam, on the Rhine. Ostend, on the North Sea. Havre de Grace, at the mouth of the Seine. Nantes, on the Loire. Bordeaux, on the Garonne. St. Sebastian, on the northern coast of Spain. Ferrol, on the north-west of Spain. Oporto, on the river Douro. Lisbon, on the river Tagus. Cadiz, on the south coast of Spain. Malaga, on the south coast of Spain. Alicant, on the south coast of Spain. Barcelona, on the south-east of Spain. Marseilles, on the Gulf of Lyons. Genoa, on the Gulf of Genoa. Leghorn, near the river Arno. Naples, on Naples Bay. Palermo, on the north of Sicily. Messina, on the Straits of Messina. Cagliari, on the south of the Island of Sardinia. Venice, on the Gulf of Venice. Trieste, on the Gulf of Trieste. Salonica, on the Gulf of Salonica. Galacz or Galatz, on the river Danube. Odessa, on the Gulf of Odessa.

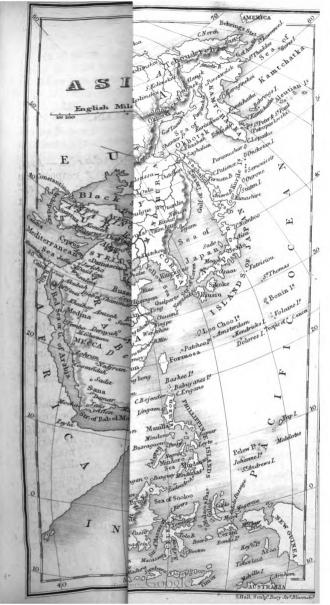
ASIA.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

289. Astronomical position, Extent, Boundaries. - ASIA. the largest, most early civilised, and in many respects the most interesting of the great divisions of the globe, extends from 1° 20' to 78° N. lat. From west to east it extends from 26° to 190° E. long. Its greatest length, from Cape Taimura, in Siberia, to Cape Romania, in Malaya, is about 5,300 miles, and its greatest breadth, from Cape Baba, in Asia-Minor, to the east coast of the Corea, is 5,600 miles. Its surface is supposed to cover an area of about 171 millions of square miles, being about four times the size of Europe. It is washed by the Arctic Ocean on the north, by the Pacific Ocean on the east, and on the south by the Indian Ocean and its branches. the west it is separated from Europe by the Ural Mountains, the river Ural, the Caspian Sea, the range of the Caucasus, the Black Sea, the Straits of the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, channel of the Dardanelles. Grecian Archipelago, and Mediterranean Sea. The Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea separate it from Africa.

290. General Aspect.—The surface of this immense continent presents every variety of aspect. From west to east—from the Mediterranean to the shores of the Pacific Ocean—it is crossed by a ridge of highlands at various elevations, but constituting, in their central mass, the loftiest mountain system on the surface of the globe. Every thing in Asia is on a vast scale: its mountains, table-lands, and plains are unequalled in the world. The mountain-chains known under the names of the Taurus, the Caucasus, the highlands of Persia and Affghanistan, and the plateau of Thibet, with the chains supported upon its surface, divide Asia into three grand



regions, differing widely in climate and productions. The central is the highland region. The northern region consists of an extensive plain, which stretches from the base of the central mountain mass to the shores of the Frozen Ocean. Its surface is swept by the piercing blasts of the north, and is intersected by numerous large rivers, which find their way to the Arctic Ocean. The southern region stretches along the shores of the Indian Ocean, and is exposed to the heat of a tropical sun.

291. Seas, Bays, Gulfs.—In the Arctic Ocean, the Gulf of Yenisei and Gulf of Obi; in the Pacific Ocean, the Chinese Sea, Gulf of Siam, Gulf of Tonquin, Yellow Sea, Sea of Japan, Sea of Okhotsk, Gulf of Anadir; in the Indian Ocean, Gulf of Martaban, Bay of Bengal, Arabian Sea, Persian Gulf, Gulf of Oman, Gulf of Arabia, and the Red Sea.

292. Straits and Channels.—Bhering Strait, on the north-eastern extremity of Asia, separating it from America; the Strait of Formosa, along the west of the island of the same name; the channel of Formosa, at the south; the Strait of Malacca, between Malaya and Sumatra; and the Straits of Babelmandel, which connect the Red Sea with the Gulf of Arabia.

293. Promontories and Capes.—Severo Vostochnoi, or North-east Cape, 78° north; Lopatka, Romania, and Manaar, the most southern; Negrais, Comorin, Ras-al-Had, Baba, the most west; and East Cape the most east.

294. Peninsulas.—Kamtschatka and Corea protrude into the Pacific Ocean, and Malacca, Hindoostan, and Arabia into the Indian Ocean.

295. Isthmuses. — The isthmus of Krah joins Malacca to the mainland, and the isthmus of Suez connects Africa with Asia.

296. Islands.—The Aleutian and Kurile Islands, which lie on the north-east of Asia, Saghalien, the Islands of Japan (consisting of Jesso or Matsmai, Niphon, Sikoko, and Kiusiu); Formosa and Hainan, off the coast of China; the Philippines, the Saloo Islands, the Moluccas, Java, and Sumatra; the Sunda Islands, Borneo, Celebes;

the Island of Ceylon, separated from the peninsula of Hindoostan by the Gulf of Manaar and Palk Strait.

297. Mountains. - The mountain system of Asia may be said to commence at Bhering's Strait, on the north-eastern They are here called the Aldan Mounshores of Asia. tains, to which follow the Yablony or Stanovoi Mountains, and to these succeeds the great table-land of Central Asia. The ridge on the eastern side of this highland is called the Khing-khan in its northern part, the Inshan in the centre, and the Yang-ling in the south. From these, two other ridges diverge, called the Pe-ling and Nan-ling mountains, and traverse China Proper, in the direction of from west to east. The plateau of Central Asia is bordered on the north by the Altai Mountains, and on the south by the Himalaya, the loftiest chain on the globe. On the surface of the plateau are supported two ranges of great elevation, namely, the Thian-shan, or Celestial Mountains, and the Kuen-lun. The western side of this great table-land is bordered by the Hindoo-Koosh Mountains: westward of these succeed the upland plains of Persia and Affghanistan, the eastern borders of which are the Suleymon and the Hala Mountains, and on the west are the mountains of Zagros. From the mountains of Zagros, several chains stretch into the highland of Armenia, and are continued by Mount Taurus, into the peninsula of Asia Minor. The lofty range of the Caucasus is connected with the mountains of Armenia. The other chains are the Vindhya and the Ghauts, which surround the plateau of the Deccan in India.

298. Table-lands or Mountain Plains.—The whole of Central Asia, comprising Chinese Tartary or Mongolia, and the whole of Tibet, consists of a table-land of great elevation; the southern portion, which is the highest, attains in Tibet a height of 12,000 feet above the sealevel. The central part is occupied by the great Desert of Gobi. To the south of this highland, and linked to it by the range of the Hindoo-Koosh, is the plateau of Iran, called the Western Highland of Asia. In Asia Minor there is also the plateau of Anatolia. In India the

plateau of the Deccan rises to 2,000 and 3,000 feet. The western point of the peninsula of Arabia rises in

some places to a height of 3,000 and 4,000 feet.

299. Volcanos. — In the peninsula of Kamtschatka there are several magnificent active volcanoes. The Kurile Islands, the Islands of Japan, the Philippine Islands, and the Sunda Islands constitute a band of isles of volcanic origin. In Central and Western Asia, particularly in the Celestial Mountains, and in the region around the Caspian Sea, detached points appear, which at one period must have been the seats of volcanic action.

300. Plains, Valleys.—The most extensive is the great Siberian plain, which stretches from the central highland of Asia northward, until it sinks into the moss lands or tundra of the Arctic Ocean. The most remarkable portions of this great level are the Steppes, a Russian term signifying desert. These are the Steppe of South European Russia, which surrounds the Caspian, and stretches northward to the Ural Mountains; the Steppe of the Kirgish, which extends east of the river Ural and around the Sea of Aral; the Steppe of Ischim, which reaches from the slopes of the Ural Mountains to the River Irtish; and the Steppe of Barabinsh, which lies between the Irtish and the Upper Obi.

301. Further northward and eastward the great plain is traversed by numerous rivers, around the lower courses of which extend immense frozen marshes covered for the

most part with moss.

302. The Chinese plain between the rivers Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-kiang is exceedingly fertile. The plains of Hindostan comprise the plain watered by the Ganges, which consists of deep rich vegetable mould, and is extremely fertile, and the plain of Scinde, which may be considered a desert except along the river courses. The plains around the Tigris and Euphrates are nothing more than sandy desolate wastes. The other plains are those of Pegu and Siam.

303. Deserts.—The most remarkable are the Great Desert of Gobi or Shamo, which occupies the centre of the

eastern highland of Asia. To the west of this highland are the deserts of Affghanistan, Beloochistan, and the desert of Persia; and further westward extends the deserts of Syria and Arabia.

304. Rivers.—The following is a classification accord-

ing to the seas or oceans into which the rivers flow.

(1.) The Arctic Ocean receives the Obi, Yenisei, Kha-

tanga, Olenek, Lena, Indigirka, and Kolyma.

(2.) The Pacific Ocean receives the Anadir, Amour or Saghalien, Hoang-ho, Yang-tse-kiang, Si-kiang, May-

kiang or Mekon, and the Meinan

(3.) Into the Indian Ocean and its branches fall the Saluen, Irawady, Bramaputra, Ganges, Mahanuddy, Godavery, Kistnah, Cauvery, Tapty, Nerbudda, the Sinde or Indus, and the united waters of the Euphrates and Tigris.

(4.) The Mediterranean and its branches receive the Syhoun, which falls into the Levant; the Meinder and Sarabat, flowing into the Archipelago; the Kizil-Irmak, Aiala or Sakaria, and Riom, which fall into the Black Sea.

(5.) The Caspian receives the Ural or Iaik, Kur, Aras, and Kizilozem, and Lake Aral receives the Jihon or

Oxus, and Sihoan or Iaxartes.

305. Lakes.—The Caspian Lake, or Sea, as it is usually termed, is the largest in the world; its water is less salt than that of the ocean, but is somewhat more bitter. This sea abounds with fish, the largest of which is the beluga, which is said to be a heavy load for three horses. There are also species of seals, porpoises, salmon, and a kind of herring. The sturgeon is the principal object of the fisheries.

306. The shores are frequented by multitudes of aquatic birds, as storks, herons, bitterns, spoonbills, geese, ducks, &c.

307. The Sea or Lake of Aral lies to the east of the Caspian, and is about one fourth in size. In Central Asia are lakes Balkashi-noor or Tenghiz, Alak-ton-gul, Khassel-Bash, Ubsa, Aral-noor Bosteng, Lob, Tengri-noor, Bonkanoor, and Pangkung, in Thibet. Lakes Urumiah and Van are in Armenia. The great salt lake of Koch-Hissar is in Asia Minor, and the Dead Sea in Palestine. The

waters of some of these lakes are intensely salt and bitter.

308. Soil. — The soil of this immense expanse of territory presents every possible variety, from the dreary confines of the Frozen Ocean to the centre of the tropical

regions.

309. Climate. — The great highland of Asia causes in it two distinct climates. The whole of Asia to the north of the 35° N. lat. has what is called an excessive climate, that is, the winters are excessively cold, and the summer excessively hot. To the south of this line there is every variety of climate depending upon local circumstances.

310. Minerals. - All the precious and useful minerals

are found in this continent.

311. Diamonds are found in India, the precious stones in China, Persia, and Independent Tartary. Gold, silver, tin, mercury, copper, iron, lead, cobalt, and salt, are procured

in several parts.

312. Vegetation.— The amount, diversity, and luxuriance of Asiatic vegetation is unequalled in the world. All the natural families of plants, from the lichens and mosses of the arctic zone to the vigorous vegetation of the tropical regions, are met with.

313. The whole continent may be divided into five great botanical regions. The first embraces the great Siberian slopes, upon the southern of which are forests containing birch, willow, juniper, maple, ash, pine, alder, fir, larch, poplar, asper, and elm trees, and a great variety of berries. The intensity and duration of the cold in the northern regions prevent the thriving of any but the most hardy plants. During the short but intense summer the ground is covered with an immense profusion of flowering and aromatic plants. The second region is continued on the great central highland: little is known of the botany of this region, but on the south slopes of the table-land are found oaks, aspens, elms, hazels, and walnut trees.

314. The third region comprises the east slope of the table-land, which is clothed with immense forests of pines and oaks of great size, but which diminish rapidly as

they approach the sea. The soil is in many parts swampy, and abounds with wild desert marshes.

- 315. The fourth region embraces the western slope of the table-land as far west as the Caspian Sea. The eastern part of the Great Plain of Tartary is exceedingly productive: gardens, orchards, and corn fields, are spread over its surface; along the river courses the hardier kind of trees are met with, as the larch, beech, and firs. The extensive steppes afford excellent pasture grounds, upon which a number of wild and domestic animals are fed. The western part, however, exhibits the extremes of wretchedness and desolation: the district between the Ural and Caspian Seas is, perhaps, the most sterile in the world.
- 316. The Northern slope of the Caucasus is desolate in the extreme, but the East, South, and West declivities are clothed with magnificent forests of cedars, cypresses, oaks, beeches, and junipers; while various kinds of fruit flourish in great luxuriance. The vegetable productions of Mesopotamia and Syria are so numerous that a description of them would occupy many pages: fruits are most abundant, and of the finest quality. Wood is scarcely known in Mesopotamia; but in Syria the majestic cedar of Lebanon maintains the fame which it acquired in the days of Jewish greatness. In Asia Minor the mountain slopes are covered with majestic oaks, cypresses, planes, sycamores, olives, mulberry trees, and fig trees.
- 317. The fifth region comprises the South slopes of the central plateau: including the extensive territory of China Proper; the three great Asiatic peninsulas, Malacca, India, and Arabia, with the South shore of Persia and Beloochistan. Within this region are several tracts of pasture grounds depending on rain for their fertility, but the whole district is unparalleled for the abundance and luxuriance of its vegetation. Trees of various species are spread over the whole region, such as the bamboo, birch, chestnut, cypress, fir, larch, mangrove, myrtle, oak, palm, pine, plantain, poplar, teak, and willow: of hard woods,

aloes, eagle-wood, ebony, iron-wood, lingow, rose-wood, and sandal-wood: of fruits, the almond, apple, apricot, banana, banyan, bread-fruit, citron, cocoa, date, fig. lemon, lime, mulberry, olive, orange, peach, pear, plum, pomegranate, tamarind, vine, and walnut: and of spices, camphor, cassia, cinnamon, clove, mace, nutmeg. Several of these trees vield gums and dye; and others are otherwise highly useful, as the cotton tree and the tea-plant. Grains of every kind are also most abundant: of rice there are no less than twenty-seven species.

318. Animals.—The mountains of Asia divide it into three zones as regards the distribution of animals: namely.

the northern, central, and southern zone.

319. In the northern region the Siberian forests harbour troops of rein-deer, elks; brown, blue, and black foxes; bears, gluttons, and several species of martins and squirrels; the great polar bear inhabits the shores along the Arctic Ocean.

320. In the central zone are found the Bactrian or doublehumped camel, the wild horse, about two species of antelopes; tigers, and troops of dogs, jackals, and wolves prey upon the antelopes, asses, and wild horses. mountains are inhabited by the musk animal; the western mountains are overrun by antelopes, gazelles, lions, panthers, cats, jackals, and monkeys. The wild ass inhabits the mountain regions. The single-humped or proper camel is a native of Arabia though found in other parts of Asia wherever the Arabs have settled.

321. The southern zone teems with animal life. lopes and deer abound in Thibet and India. In Bengal is the spotted axis, and in the forests of Orissa is found the jungle-cow. In India there are few lions; but this region and the districts to the E. and W. of it are overrun by fierce tigers: the buffalo inhabits the banks of the rivers and lakes; squirrels, peacocks, pheasants, and junglecocks abound in the forests between the Ganges and Indus. The forests of the Ghauts are inhabited by several species of bears. The elephant and one-horned rhinoceros live in the forests, and attain their greatest size

in the countries S.E. of India; the tapir is also found in these regions, with ourangs and gibbons. The waters of the Ganges abound with alligators. Birds, adorned with rich plumage, are in every zone. Vultures, eagles, falcons, buzzards, and owls inhabit the banks of the Indus. The islands along the Southern shore of the continent abound with parroquets of every variety of colour.

322. Of domestic animals the most important is the elephant, which is confined to the lowlands of India, Birmah, and Siam; next is the camel, the Bactrian or two-humped camel and the one-humped camel, the former chiefly inhabiting the N.E. of Asia; the latter is spread over Western Asia and Northern Africa. The other domestic animals of Central and Southern Asia are horses, mules, asses, buffaloes, beeves, sheep, and goats. In the rigorous climate of the north, the rein-deer supplies the place of all other domestic animals. Noxious reptiles abound in the southern regions.

323. Fishes and Insects.— The seas and rivers appear to possess every known kind of fish, and some that are peculiar. The insect tribes are numerous throughout the whole continent; the most destructive of these is the locust, which appears in countless swarms in the sandy regions of N. W. Asia, in Arabia, and Syria, and whose ravages are far more dreaded than the attacks of carni-

vorous animals.

324. Races of Men.—Within the limits of this continent is found a great variety of tribes and nations. The five principal are the Hindoos, the Chinese, the Tartars, the Arabs, and the Persians.

325. The Hindoos, Arabs, and Persians are generally considered to belong to the Caucasian or white race; and the Tartars and Chinese to be of the Mongolian variety.

326. Political Divisions.—In the following description of the different countries of Asia we shall consider them under the following heads: the Chinese Empire, Russia in Asia, India, South-eastern peninsula or India beyond the Ganges, Persia, Beloochistan, Affghanistan, Independent Tartary, Asiatic Turkey, Arabia, Japan.

States.	Capital and Chief Towns.
Chinese Empire: Comprising China, Corea, Loo- choo, Formosa, Manchooria, Mongolia, Thibet, Soongaria, and Little Bukharia.	Pekin, Nankin, Canton.
Rassia in Asia: Comprising Siberia, Georgia, Mingrelia, Imeritia, portions of Armenia, Azerbijam, and Ghi- lan; the Caucasus, and the Steppes of Astrakan, and the Kirgish.	Tobolsk, Irkutsk, Tiflis.
India. — See Table of India The Kingdom of Iran, or Persia	Teheran, Ispahan, Tauris, Shiraz, Meshed.
Afghanistan.	Cabool, Candahar, Ghuznec, Peshawar.
Beloochistan.	Kelat.
Independent Tartary, or Tur- kestan.	Bokhara, Khiva, Samarcand, Khojand, Zashkend, Balkh.
Asiatic Turkey, or the Ottoman Empire.	Smyrna, Kutahya, Ezroum, Antioch, Aleppo, Damascus, Jerusalem, Baghdad, Busorah.
Arabia.	Mecca, Medina, Mocha.
Islands.	
Empire of Japan.	Jeddo.
Ceylon.	Colombo, Trincomale.
Java.	Batavia, Samarang.
Sumatra.	Acheen, Bencoole.
Borneo.	Borneo.
Celebes,	Mandano.
The Moluccas, &c.	
Philippines.	Manilla.

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

327. This empire consists of three great divisions; viz., 1. CHINA PROPER; 2. CHINESE TARTARY; and, 3. THIBET.—The peninsula of COREA is tributary to China.

328. CHINA PROPER is bounded by the Chinese Sea on the south, the Pacific Ocean on the east, Thibet and Tartary on the west and north. The chief cities are, Pekin, Nankin, and Canton; but it contains 40 or 50 of great extent, and vast population; and many hundreds of secondary magnitude, equal to our largest towns.

329. CHINESE TARTARY extends both to the north and west of China, and is bounded by Siberia on the north, Independent Tartary on the west, and Thibet on the

south.

330. It is inhabited chiefly by the Mandshurs and Mongols; of whom the former conquered China in 1644, and still govern the empire. A great part of it is covered by the sandy desert of Shamo or Gobi; but Little Bucharia, immediately west of China, is traversed by chains of mountains, enclosing many fertile regions, of which the chief are Kashgar, Khoten, and Hami, with capitals of the same names. Yarkand is the great seat of inland trade.

Obs. The Mongols are a wandering, pastoral, warlike race, with broad faces and high cheek bones. From their country came the ancient Huns; and under the standard of Zingis Khan, their ancestors conquered the greater part of Asia and the east of Europe. The Mongols are rather allies than subjects of China.

331. Thiber is an extensive table land to the north of Hindostan, lying beyond the Himalaya chain, and between it and the Holkoun chain, in a bleak and rugged elevation. Its chief town is Lassa, where resides the grand Lama or spiritual sovereign of these regions in a splendid palace, 367 feet high, and containing 10,000 apartments.

Obs. This theological person is said to have the soul of his predecessor in a new body, and the influence of this superstition prevails through vast countries, and extends to China. There are even subordinate Lamas; but since 1791, when the Chinese took possession of Thibet, they have exercised all civil authority. One Lama, called the Teshoo, resides near the Bengal frontier, with a population of nearly 4000 priests.

332. The chief rivers of China are the Hoang-ho and the Kian-ku, or Yang-tse-kiang, each about 2000 miles long, and among the largest in the world. A vast num-

ber of Chinese live always in covered boats, on these rivers, and on the innumerable canals.

333. The Chinese islands are very numerous, and scattered along the southern and eastern coast. The largest are Taywan or Formosa, and Hainan. The Chusan are a numerous group, small and fertile, near the mouth of the great river Kian-ku, the principal island of which was lately occupied by a British force. The islands of Loochoo, a considerable group, subject to China, are noted for the courteous and amiable character of the people.

334. China produces abundance of rice, tea, and fruit; and is famous for its ingenious manufactures of silks. porcelain, earthenware, paper, &c. In return it receives some woollens and cottons from Britain and India: and of late chiefly an immense quantity of opium. This, however, was strictly prohibited by the government; and the seizure of a large amount in the hands of British merchants gave occasion in 1840 to war between the two nations, which, however, has been happily terminated by a treaty, granting the required compensation, and additional facilities to British commerce. The small island of Hong-kong, at the entrance of the river leading to Canton, has been ceded to Britain. Access has also been granted to the ports of Amoy, Ningpo, Foutcheoufoo, and Shangae, on the eastern coast, thus opening a communication with the richest provinces, and those in which tea is produced.

Obs. The Chinese send numerous large junks to Japan and the oriental islands. They also carry on a vast inland trade between their provinces by canals; and they cultivate every acre of ground with singular profit and neatness. The tea tree is the most singular and valuable plant in China: it is an evergreen shrub, and grows to the size, and much in the form, of our gooseberry-bush; the leaves are gathered at different seasons, and thus form varieties for our teas; the finer sorts require extraordinary care in drying and preparing for sale, and some are dyed to give them a stronger colour.

335. China is celebrated for the great antiquity of its government; for its crowded population, its fine manufactures, and some peculiar productions; for the extent

of its canal navigation; and for its jealous and exclusive commercial policy.

Obs. All travellers in China have expressed their astonishment at the vast population. The precise amount, however, is very variously stated. Recent estimates by Morrison and Klaproth, founded on official publications, made it about 150 millions; while a still later one in the Anglo-Chinese calendar, purporting also to be official, raises it to 360 millions. The truth probably lies between these extremes, and China may contain from 200 to 300 millions of inhabitants. The population of its Tartar dominions is still more uncertain, but may be estimated at from 8 to 10 millions.

From east to west the Chinese dominions extend 4900 British miles and from north to south 2000 miles. It possesses every variety of climate, from that of the north of England to that of the West Indies.

Near Pekin is the imperial palace, consisting of many extensive buildings, with ornamental gardens, so beautiful as to appear the work of enchantment. Pekin occupies a large space of ground, but the streets are wide, and the houses seldom exceed one story. The length of what is called the Tartar city is about four miles, and the suburbs are considerable. The houses, indeed, are neither large nor numerous; but their neatness delights the eye of the visitor. Nankin is a still greater city, its walls being seventeen miles round. Canton, also of great magnitude, was, till recently, the only port in which Europeans were allowed to establish factories.

The great canal, above 500 miles long, of greater width than any in Europe, is said to have had 30,000 men employed forty-three years in completing it. Every province also has its canal, with branches to each town and large village. The great wall is the most prodigious work of art in the world, and was built 2000 years ago, to protect China from the invasions of the Tartars. It is carried over mountains 5000 feet high, across valleys, and on arches over rivers. In many important passes it is doubled and trebled. At every hundred yards is a tower or bastion. It is in general twenty-five feet high, and fifteen thick.

336. The government of China is a complete despotism, the emperor pretending to rule it as a vicegerent of the divinity. The administration is in the hands of numerous mandarins, who are chosen on the ground of proficiency in learning, respecting which they undergo a strict examination. They form large boards in the capital, who advise his Majesty on every subject, and from them are chosen the governors of provinces and cities. Hence, though there are many instances of injustice and extor-







tion, China is, on the whole, better governed than any other Asiatic country. They have long known the art of printing, not with moveable types, but on thin wooden blocks, one for every page. They have large works on history and science, many poems and novels, and esteemed works by Confucius, Mencius, and other philosophers; but their literature in no branch is equal to that of Europe. The language is very peculiar, having a letter or mark for every word, of which there are at least 30,000. Its acquisition thus appears to present great difficulties; but these have been overcome by Dr. Morrison and other learned missionaries, who have translated the Holy Scriptures into it, and circulated them among the people.

337. By very ancient policy, all foreigners are excluded from China; and a very restricted intercourse only was till recently permitted at Canton, a port in the South, at Maimatchin, a fortress on the Siberian frontier, and at Yarcand in Tartary. They consider all other nations as barbarians, and themselves the first inventors and artists, having, in fact, known block-printing, the compass, gunpowder, &c. in remote ages. Yet the people begin to feel the superiority of the English; and when an intercourse has been opened, either for trade or other pur poses, they have eagerly cultivated it, till prevented by the rigorous prohibitions and penalties of the government.

Obs. Chinese authentic history extends to about 2000 B.C., and the same government has subsisted, with a few changes of dynasty. The state religion is pure deism; and the sovereign is regarded as God's representative, and the father of the nation: but other religions and many gross superstitions prevail. The royal revenue is one tenth of the produce of the land, received in kind, and amounts to about 66 millions sterling. Both the army and navy are very numerous, but have proved wholly unfit to contend with a European force.

RUSSIA IN ASIA.

338. Russia in Asia consists of two entirely distinct parts, Siberia, and the countries on the Caspian. Siberia

is divided into two great governments, that of Tobolsk in the west, and Irkutsk in the east. It was conquered by Russia about a century and a half ago, and in a great measure peopled by criminals sent thither into exile.

339. The Kurile Islands are a considerable group belonging to Asiatic Russia, extending to the south from Kamtschatka. The Fox Islands extend between Asia and America. The sea north of Siberia is filled with ice, and is commonly unnavigable.

Obs. This vast extent of land, containing three millions and a half of square miles, is not supposed to contain above two millions of barbarous inhabitants, chiefly Tartars, and others called Tchuvashes, Votiaks, Ostiaks, Voguls, Tungusians, and Kamtschatdales.

340. The principal cities in Siberia are Tobolsk and Irkutsk. The north produces only valuable furs and skins; but in the south are some corn lands and very rich pasturages. The Obi is the chief river; the Irtysh, the Lena, and the Yeniseï, are also very considerable.

341. The countries on the Caspian, and extending to the Black Sea, are chiefly Astrachan, Georgia, and Circassia. The last two are traversed by the great mountain range of Caucasus, the highest pinnacle of which, Elbourz, is 18,000 feet high. In its heights are many rude independent tribes. The Circassians are celebrated for the bravery of the men and the beauty of the females. Russia has made great efforts to subdue them, but hitherto without success. Numerous slaves of both sexes are imported from these countries into Persia and Turkey.

342. The chief cities are Astrachan and Derbend on the Caspian; and Teflis, the capital of Georgia. Most

of this territory has been conquered from Persia.

INDIA.

343. India is formed by nature into three great divisions:—

344. I. The mountain territory along the whole northern frontier, consisting of the heights and slopes of the Himalaya, now ascertained to contain the loftiest summits

on the globe, some of them being above five miles in height, and covered with perpetual snow. The valleys between their successive ridges are narrow, but many of them fertile and beautiful.

345. II. The great central plain of Hindostan Proper, watered by the Ganges and the Indus, two of the largest rivers in Asia, with their tributaries. It is the finest part of India, and one of the most fruitful and populous regions in the world.

regions in the world.

346. III. The southern peninsula, stretching in a triangular form into the Indian Ocean, terminating in a point at Cape Comorin. High ranges of hills, called the Ghauts, run parallel to the coast; the eastern Ghauts to that of Coromandel, and the western to that of Malabar. The interior consists of the very elevated table-lands of the Deccan and Mysore. This region is fertile, though not equally so with the Gangetic provinces; yet its hills produce the pepper, and contain the principal diamond mines.

347. The political divisions are as follow.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Hindostan, or India within the Ganges.	
Mountain Territories.	1
Cashmere.	Cashmere.
Kumaon.	Almora.
Nepaul.	Catmandoo.
Bootan.	Tassisudon.
Gangetic Hindostan.	· ·
Delhi.	Delhi, Bareilly.
Agra.	Agra, Gwalior.
Oude.	Lucknow.
Allahabad.	Allahabad, Benares.
Bahar.	Patna
Bengal.	Calcutta, Scrampore, Moorshe- dabad, Dacca.
Sindetic Hindostan.	
Lahore or the Punjab.	Lahore, Amritsir.
Moultan.	Moultan.
Sinde.	Hyderabad, Tatta.

, Divisions	Chief Towns.
Central Hindostan.	
Ajmere.	Ajmere, Jyepore.
Malwa.	Oujein, Indore.
Gujerat.	Ahmedabad, Baroda, Surat.
Candeish.	Burhampore.
Berar.	Nagpore.
Aurungabad or Dowlatabad.	Aurungabad, Poonah.
Concan.	Bombay, Goa.
Bajapore or Visiapore.	Bajapore, Sattara.
Hydrabad.	Hydrabad.
The Circars.	Vizagapatam, Masulipatam.
Orissa.	Cuttack, Juggernaut.
Southern Hindostan.	, , , ,
Mysore.	Myrone Seringenetem Pengelone
The Carnatic.	Mysore, Seringapatam, Bangalore, Madras, Arcot, Tranquebar,
The Carnatic.	Madras, Arcot, Tranquebar, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Ca- nara, Malabar, Cochin, Man- galore, Calicut.
Travancore.	Travandrum.
The Eastern Peninsula, or	r India beyond the Ganges.
British Provinces.	f · ·
Assam.	Ghergong.
Aracan.	Aracan.
Martaban.	Moulmein, Amherst.
Tavoy.	Tavoy.
Tenasserim.	Mergui, Tenasserim.
Malacca.	Malacca.
Birman Empire.	
Ava.	Ava, Amarapoora.
Pegu.	Rangoon, Proue, Pegu, Martaban.
Siam.	Bankok, Siam or Yuthia,
Malay States.	,
The Empire of Anam.	
Cochin-China.	Hué, Turon.
Tonquin.	Kesho.
Laos.	Lanchang.
Cambodia.	Saigon, Cambodia.
CHAIDOUIN .	·

348. Hindostan was for several centuries the seat of the Mogul empire, established by conquest from Tartary

and Afghanistan, and considered the most powerful and splendid in the East. Within the last century its power was extinguished by the rise of the independent Mahratta chiefs, and the rebellion of its own nabobs or governors; but these new princes, having involved themselves in contests with Britain, have yielded to the superiority of her arms and councils, and have mostly been reduced to a state either of subjection or vassalage. The Great Mogul still resides at Delhi, under British protection.

349. This region has been celebrated from the earliest ages as the most beautiful and fertile in Asia, and perhaps in the world. It produces, in the greatest abundance, rice, sugar, cotton, opium, indigo, and pepper. It has mines of the finest diamonds, and yields also rubies and other precious stones. The population amounts to nearly 140,000,000, of whom nine tenths are either subjects, allies, or tributaries of Great Britain.

350. About seven eighths of the great population of India consists of native Hindoos; a peculiar race, of black complexion, but small and elegant forms and features, and of mild and polished manners. They have many learned books written in the Sanscrit, an ancient and now dead language. They are extremely superstitious, worshipping a triple deity, Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, with various subordinate powers, and even rivers and animals. They go in vast crowds on pilgrimages, often of more than a thousand miles, to their favourite shrines, as those of Hurdwar, Benares, and Juggernaut. They are also impelled by fanaticism to strange and barbarous deeds. throwing themselves under the wheels of their sacred chariots, or drowning themselves or their children in the Ganges; widows, also, have been accustomed to burn themselves on the funeral pile of their husbands: but these enormities are now studiously prevented by the British government. The Hindoos have also been formed by superstition into classes, or castes, the higher among whom will not eat or speak with those of inferior condi-These castes are, in the order of their dignity, the Brahmins, or priests; the Cshatryas, or soldiers; the

Vaisyas, or tradesmen; and the Soodras, or labourers. The Hindoos have peaceably obeyed the successive nations by whom they have been conquered, provided they were allowed to retain their own religion and institutions. The remaining eighth part of the population consists of the conquering races of Tartars and Afghans, who brought with them the profession of the Mahometan religion. The number of Europeans is very small, though they are now nearly masters of the country.

351. Hindostan, as now governed, may be divided into the territories immediately ruled by Britain, those held by her vassals and tributaries, and the few which still

remain independent.

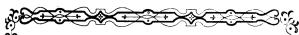
352. India, under British government, is divided into

three presidencies: Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.

353. The presidency of *Bengal* includes the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Agra, and Delhi. It thus comprises all the territory watered by the Ganges and the Jumna, and the mountain districts in which their sources are situated. It comprehends the most fruitful of the plains of India, and is also the seat of its finest manufactures.

354. Calcutta is now the largest city, ranking as the capital of India. The government house and the mansions of wealthy individuals are exceedingly splendid; but the native quarter, or black town, as usual in India, consists of miserable hovels, arranged in narrow, confined, and crooked streets. The city contains, however, a number of intelligent and opulent natives. In this presidency are also Agra and Delhi, the successive capitals of the Mogul emperors, and still adorned with their splendid palaces and tombs; Benares, the chief seat of Hindoo religion and learning; and Daoca, where the finest muslins in the world are manufactured.

355. The presidency of *Madras* comprises the greater part of the coast of Coromandel, including the Carnatic, the Circars, and various other detached districts. Madras is a large city, though not equal to Calcutta. Arcot is the capital of the Carnatic; Tanjore is a flourishing city,





DELHI, PALACE OF THE KING



INHABITANTS OF SCINDE



ISPAHAN.



with a splendid pagoda; and Masulipatam is the chief seat of the manufactures of calicoes and ginghams.

356. Bombay is the smallest of the presidencies, consisting of various detached districts in the west of India. The city of that name, situated on an island, is the seat of a great trade, carried on both by British and Parsee merchants. In this presidency are also Surat, the most flourishing and commercial city of western India; Cambay, the metropolis of the fine province of Guzerat; and Poonah, lately the capital of the Mahratta confederacy.

357. The population of the three presidencies is esti-

mated at ninety millions.

358. The Seikhs are a confederacy, once religious and now political, who, under their chief, Runjeet Sing, became masters of the fine western provinces of Lahore and Moultan, on the Indus. They also obtained possession of the beautiful mountain valley of Cashmere, famous for the fine shawls manufactured there, and of part of the kingdom of Cabul. Runjeet Sing disciplined eighty regiments in the European manner. Since his death in 1840, the country has fallen into an unsettled state. On the 29th March 1849, after a series of hard fought battles, the Seikh territory, or the Punjaub as it is generally termed, was annexed to the British dominions.

359. Sinde, a flat but fertile territory, at the mouth of the Indus, and intersected by the branches of that river. Its rulers were some turbulent chiefs, formerly tributary to Cabul, but it has been recently annexed to the territories under the immediate administration of the East India Company. Tatta, Hyderabad, and Shikapore, are the

chief towns.

360. The powers held in vassalage by Britain are

chiefly the following: -

361. The Nizam, or Soubah of the *Deccan*, who governs the greater part of that southern table-land so called. Hyderabad, his capital, is a very large city, at which a British force is constantly stationed.

362. The Rajah of Mysore. This country is a high and fertile table-land, containing the strong cities of

Seringapatam and Bangalore. Its former rulers, Hyder and Tippoo, were the most inveterate enemies of Britain; but after a bloody struggle the latter was vanquished,

and his family dethroned.

363. Of the Mahratta princes, the Rajah of Sattara, descended from the original founder of the confederacy, had been dethroned and imprisoned by his generals. Britain, after overcoming them, drew him from confinement, and assigned to him a considerable territory, but has now deposed him. The Rajah of Berar resides at Nagpoor, and is a determined enemy of Britain, but reduced to complete subjection. The same may be said of the once powerful and turbulent house of Holkar, who are still allowed to hold their court at Indore, and to govern a part of the elevated province of Malwa.

364. The king of *Oude*, who once ranked as vizier to the Mogul, still governs that fine province lying to the south of the Ganges, and has a splendid palace at Lucknow. The Guickwar in Guzerat, and the Rajah of Travancore, in the most southern part of the peninsula, are also

dependent upon Britain.

365. The Rajpoot chiefs, who rule over Ajmere, an extensive hilly province to the west of Agra, are rather protected by Britain than subject to her. They are a peculiar race, unlike the other Hindoos; brave, honourable, proud of their descent, and full of respect for the female sex. The state of society much resembles that of Europe during the feudal ages. Ajmere, Chittore, Oodipore, contain splendid palaces and remains of ancient temples.

366. The only powers independent of Britain are—

367. Scindiah, the most potent of the Mahratta chiefs, who has a long range of territory, extending south-west from Agra, with about four millions of inhabitants: but there is every probability of this kingdom being speedily annexed to the British possessions. His capital is the strong fortress of Gwalior.

368. Nepaul comprises most of the territory on the southern side of the Himalaya mountains, sloping down to the great plain which forms the presidency of Bengal.

with a portion of territory north of the Himalaya. The country is generally rugged and barren, yet contains extensive woods, and some very fertile valleys. The people are rude and warlike, and the king long maintained a very obstinate contest with the British power, but was completely vanquished, and obliged to cede a great part of his territories. Catmandoo is the capital.

369. British India is ruled by the East India Company, who draw from it a revenue of about 22,000,000*l*. sterling, and maintain an army of 230,000 men, chiefly natives, called *spahis*, but more commonly *sepoys*, commanded by European officers. The Company had formerly a commercial monopoly, but the trade has been opened to all

British subjects.

370. The Laccadive and Maldive islands, west of Hindostan and Ceylon, are unimportant, but very numerous: the Maldives are said to be more than thirteen hundred in number. Their most valuable product is cowries, a

species of shells current in the East as money.

371. Ceylon, one of the largest and finest islands in the world, at the conclusion of the last war was ceded to the English, who have some valuable settlements on its coast, at Trincomalee, Columbo, &c. Its capital, Candy, was taken by the English in 1815. The island is mountainous, but in many parts fertile, yielding the tree whose bark forms the valuable spice called cinnamon, and coffee in abundance. Elephants are here numerous and large; the rocks abound in various gems; and the sea between it and the continent contains the richest pearl fishery in the world.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

372. Under this general name is comprehended an immense country on the east of the Bay of Bengal, which may be divided into the British territories, the Birman empire, Siam, and the empire of Anam or Cochin-China.

373. THE BRITISH TERRITORIES were obtained by treaty in 1826, after the successful war against the Birmans.

They consist of Assam, Arracan, Mergui, and Tenasserim, which, with Malacca obtained from the Dutch in 1824, in exchange for some districts in the islands, comprehend nearly the whole eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal. They are in many parts fertile, but rudely cultivated. Assam has been found to contain large forests of the teaplant, which it is hoped may render Britain in some degree independent of China.

374. On a small island at the southern extremity, Britain has founded the town of Sincapore, which has become remarkably flourishing, and a great part of the trade of the surrounding countries centres in it. She has also founded Amherst Town and Maulmein in Tenasserim: and has a settlement at Prince of Wales Island.

near Malacca.

375. THE BIRMAN EMPIRE consists of the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu, and was very powerful, till humbled in the late contest with Britain. It is traversed from north to south by the great river Irawaddy; and the territory is productive, particularly in teak timber, a valuable species, more durable than the European oak. The Birmans are estimated at about five millions, and, unlike the Hindoos, are brave, lively, and inquisitive.

376. Their religion and literature are entirely different, belonging to the system of Boodh, whose votaries were long ago expelled from Hindostan. The chief military force consists in war-boats well armed, which fight in the channel of the river. Ummcrapoora was the capital till lately, when the seat of government was transferred to Ava. At Pegu and other cities are most splendid pagodas, having their roofs adorned with gold.

The trade is carried on at Rangoon.

377. SIAM consists of a fertile valley between two ranges of mountains, and watered by the noble river Meinam. It is well fitted for sugar, rice, and other tropical products, but the cultivation and trade are chiefly in the hands of the Chinese. The population is about three millions. Bankok, the capital, at the mouth of the Meinam, consists in a great measure of houses floating in the water. The elephants of Siam are famed for their size and beauty.

378. The eastern countries of Cambodia, Tsiompa, and Tonquin, have all, within the last thirty years, been subjected by Cochin-China or Anam. The king of that country, having been driven for some years into exile, obtained the assistance of some French officers, through whom he formed a navy and army on the European plan, and thus achieved all those conquests. The chief river is the Maykiang, which flows through Cambodia. The forests are very extensive, and contain many trees yielding rich gums, particularly those called gamboge and gutta percha.

379. Tonquin is the most fertile and populous of these countries; and its capital, Kesho, the largest of the cities; but both are little known. All these countries are supposed to contain about five millions of people. The residence of the sovereign is at Hue-foo, in Cochin-China; but Saigong, in Tsiompa, is the chief seat of foreign

trade.

380. Laos is a mountainous country in the interior, partly subject to Anam, partly ruled by independent chiefs.

381. Opposite to the coast of Malacca are the islands of Andaman and Nicobar, inhabited by an almost savage race of people. A British settlement was formed on the great Andaman of convicts from Bengal; but it has been given up, on account of the unhealthiness of the climate.

PERSIA.

382. Persia is divided into eastern and western. Western Persia is a distinct empire, and contains the provinces of Azerbijan, Mazanderan, Irak-ajemi, Khuzistan, Fars, Kerman, and Khorassan. The principal towns and cities are: — Teheran, the present residence of the shah or sovereign, is little more than a standing camp, being chosen on account of its vicinity to the Russian and Tartar frontier. Ispahan, the capital under Abbas, was one of the most splendid cities of the East, but is now

much decayed. Shiraz is equally celebrated for the beauty of its climate and environs, and the men of genius, Hafiz and Sadi, who made it their abode. Hamadan, the ancient Echatana, Sultania, and Tabreez, have at different times been the residence of princes, but are all now in decay.

383. Western Persia is a hilly country, with extensive table-lands, but some very fertile plains. Its intercourse with foreign nations is carried on from the Persian Gulf. an arm of the sea, in which are the islands of Ormus and Gombroon, once noted for their trade. The chief commercial intercourse is carried on by caravans, with Turkey, on the one hand, and India on the other.

384. From Persia are brought silks, carpets, leather.

pearls, and gold and silver lace.

Obs. 1. The fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia are delicious. Pearls are found in the Gulf of Bassora. The sheep of this country are deservedly esteemed for their flavour and for their fleece; they are remarkable for the size and fatness of their tails, some of which

weigh 30 lbs.

2. The Persians are celebrated for their vivacity, their gay dresses adorned with jewels, their humanity and hospitality. They are distinguished for learning, and excel particularly in poetry. The Persian is the classic language of the East, and the language of intercourse at court, as French is in Europe. The Persians are a handsome people, and the females are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art.

3. This country, whose power and splendour in ancient times is so amply recorded by sacred and profane writers, and was revived under Abbas the Great, has, by long-continued internal dissension and by inroads of barbarous neighbours, been reduced to the rank of a second-rate kingdom. Latterly it has been encroached on by the Russians, and forced to yield some of its finest provinces.

385. Eastern Persia includes Afghanistan, or the country of the Afghans, with the provinces of Segestan and Herat. The country is very mountainous. Afghans are a brave people, with some free institutions, and have repeatedly conquered both Persia and India. The kingdom of Cabool, at the beginning of this century, was one of the most powerful in Asia. Besides the territories above mentioned, it contained Sinde, Lahore,

and Cashmere, in Hindostan, and Balkh in Tartary. Shah Shujah, the king, in 1809, was expelled by his brother, when various claimants arose and the monarchy was split into a number of petty principalities. All its foreign possessions were then lost, Runjeet Singh seizing upon Lahore and Cashmere. The Shah of Persia then formed the plan, with the assistance of Russia, to obtain the chief influence over these countries. He was repulsed in an attack upon Herat, but gained the alliance of the chiefs of Cabool and Candahar. This being considered dangerous to the security of the British empire in India, Lord Auckland, the governor-general, formed an alliance with Runjeet Singh for the restoration of Shah Shuiah. A British force accordingly entered the kingdom, where it endured severe hardships, but met no serious opposition, unless at the fortress of Ghuznee, which was captured in 1839. But the mountain tribes soon showed symptoms of discontent; and, on the British troops quitting Cabool on capitulation in 1841, they were treacherously attacked and massacred to the number of 17,000, including camp followers, &c. After amply avenging this disaster, and regaining their prisoners, the British troops finally evacuated the country in 1842.

Obs. The cities of Afghanistan, situated in high and fertile valleys between the mountains, enjoy a fine climate. Cabool, the capital, has recently been razed to the ground. Candahar and Ghuznee are famous cities. Peshawer, in a fine district, is now held by the Seikhs; Herat, a great commercial city in the west, by Kamran, a branch of the royal family.

386. South from Cabool is the country of Seistan, composed in a great measure of sandy deserts; Beloochistan, a rugged hilly tract, inhabited by the Belooches, a race of daring freebooters; Kelat is the capital: lastly, Mekran, a maritime province, whose chief town is Kej. All these countries are very barren and thinly inhabited.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

387. This extensive region is celebrated as forming the greater part of the ancient Scythia. It was afterwards

distinguished as the basis of the wide empire of Timur. It consists of an immense plain, many parts of which are barren, but others tolerably fertile; numerous horses and cattle are reared, and their conquering armies consist chiefly of cavalry. The Tartars, though rude, are extremely hospitable.

388. The chief rivers of Tartary are the Jihon or Oxus, and the Sirr or Sihon; and the country borders on the great lakes or inland seas of the Caspian and the

Aral.

389. The chief divisions of Independent Tartary are,—
(1.) The territory on the Oxus, or Great Bucharia, once the seat of the empire of Timur, being watered by that river and the Kohuk, is fruitful, yielding abundance even of rice and silk. Bokhara is now the chief city, with numerous monasteries and colleges, and supposed by Sir A. Burnes to contain 150,000 inhabitants. Samarcand was a most splendid city when Timur, the great Asiatic conqueror, made it his capital. It still contains his tomb and other monuments, but is much decayed, containing scarcely 10,000 people.

(2.) Ferghana, on the Sihon, contains many fruitful plains, and the large cities of Koukan, Khojand, and

Turkestan.

(3.) Balk, the ancient Bactria, on the southern side of the mountain range of Indian Caucasus, was anciently the seat of a powerful Greek kingdom, and the capital continued flourishing till it was lately desolated by the ferocious mountain ruler of Koondooz, and is supposed not to contain now above 2000 houses. The same chief holds sway over several small mountain districts at the head of the Oxus. The principal is Budukshan, famous for its mines of rubies and lapis lazuli; but they are not at present worked.

(4.) Khiva is a tolerably fertile and cultivated tract, at the mouth of the Oxus, where it falls into the Aral. It was formerly a powerful kingdom, named Kharism. The Khan still claims sovereignty over a vast tract of desert, inhabited by wandering Turcoman tribes, supposed to

compose 140,000 families. They are a rude race, but have noble horses, with which they perform perpetual forays into Persia and elsewhere, carrying off goods, cattle, and particularly slaves. The Khan had lately about 15,000 belonging to Russia, and the expedition sent by the emperor to release them failed; but they were liberated on the intercession of the British envoy.

(5.) Extensive plains, or steppes, in the north, are tenanted by the four hordes of the Kirgishes, a rude pas-

toral race, addicted to plunder.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

390. Asiatic Turkey consists of a range of beautiful and fertile countries, once rich and flourishing, and the theatre of the greatest events in ancient history. At present, however, Turkish oppression and anarchy have reduced them to a state of poverty and insignificance.

391. The principal divisions of Asiatic Turkey are, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Armenia, and Irak-Arabi. These are subdivided into pashálics, governed by pashás appointed by the Grand Signior, but who often assume independent power. Syria, Palestine, and a part of Asia Minor were formerly under the power of the Pasha of Egypt, but in 1841 the British navy, under Stopford and Napier, expelled his forces, and restored them to the Porte.

392. The mountains and rivers of Asiatic Turkey are much celebrated in history. The principal mountains are, Taurus and Olympus, in Asia Minor; Ararat, in Armenia; Lebanon, in Syria; Hermon and Tabor. in Palestine. The chief rivers are, the Euphrates, the Tigris, the Orontes, and the Jordan. The principal lakes are. Asphaltites, or the Dead Sea, and Tiberias, anciently the Sea of Galilee; both in Palestine.

393. ASIA MINOR is a mountainous territory, with high table-lands in the interior, and rich plains on the seacoast. Smyrna, the capital, is the chief seat of the Levant trade, and from it are exported fine carpets, silk, goats'

hair, rhubarb, oil, and fruits. The other great cities, in which were the seven churches of Asia, Pergamus, Thyatira, Sardis, Ephesus, and Laodicea, now Latakia, are mostly distinguished by splendid ruins. Bursa, Konieh, Tocat, and Sivas are now the chief inland cities. Trebisond, on the Black Sea, has recently become a great commercial place.

394. Syria, a mountainous but very fruitful country, has suffered much from anarchy, but is now delivered from the Pashá of Egypt. A number of independent tribes inhabit the heights of Lebanon. Antioch, the ancient capital of the East, is much decayed; but Damascus and Aleppo are still great and flourishing cities. There are magnificent ruins of the Temple of the Sun at Balbec, and of the ancient city of Palmyra, on the borders of the desert.

395. PALESTINE is distinguished as the theatre of the miracles and great events of Scripture history. Though mountainous, and in many parts rugged, it has many fertile districts, which were anciently well cultivated, but

are now nearly deserted.

396. Jerusalem is in the midst of the central chain of mountains which runs north and south through Palestine. on the boundary line between the tribes of Benjamin and Judah, thirty-three miles from the sea, and twenty-four from the Jordan, and nearly the same distance north of Hebron. It occupies an irregular promontory in the midst of a confused sea of rocks, crags, and hills. Here, on her rocky heights, she sits dreary, silent, and solitary, amid surrounding desolation. The promontory of the city begins at the distance of a mile or more north-west of the city, at the head of the valleys of Jehoshaphat and Gihon, which gradually fall away on the right and left, and, sinking deeper as they run in a circuitous route around the opposite side of the platform of the city, unite their deep ravines at some distance south-east of the city, and many feet below the level of its walls.

397. The valley of Jehoshaphat, on the north, runs nearly east for some distance, then turns at a right angle to the



south, and opens a deep defile below the eastern walls of the city, between it and the Mount of Olives. The valley of Gihon pursues a southerly course for some distance, then sweeps in a bold angle around the base of Mount Zion, and falls by a rapid descent into a deep narrow water-course, which continues in an easterly direction to its junction with the valley of Jehoshaphat.

398. Near the south line of the valley of Jehoshaphat, before it turns to the south, a slight depression begins at the north gate of the city. This depression, the head of the valley of the Tyropæon, or cheesemongers, continuing south through the city, divides it into two sections; of which the eastern is terminated by Mount Moriah, on which stood the temple. The western division is terminated by Mount Zion, where was David's house, and the royal residence of his successors.

399. The city was again traversed by another valley from south-west to north-east, with a slighter depression, north of the mounts Zion and Moriah, forming two slight eminences, Acra and Bezetha; the first on the north, opposite Zion, the other north-east, above Moriah. The city was thus situated upon four hills, of which the two on the north now stand but little above the elevated platform of the city; while the two on the south, after all the waste of ages, still rise to bold commanding heights, surrounded each, on three sides, by deep natural trenches.

400. Jerusalem retains few traces of her ancient grandeur. The site of the temple is occupied by the Mosque of Omar, a splendid Turkish sanctuary, to which neither Jew nor Christian is allowed access under any circumstances. Beneath the platform of the mosque, and within the walls, are some concealed crypts, which are supposed to be the remains of the ancient foundations which Solomon laid at the foot of Mount Moriah, to rear the lofty groundwork of his temple. Two of these, 19 feet wide, opened a magnificent passage underground from the Tyropæon on the south up to the Temple.

401. "The arches are of hewn stone, and the noblest I have seen in the country. As I walked through the broad

aisles, in a stillness broken only by the sound of my footsteps, it was a thrilling thought: I was treading one of the avenues through which the tribes had passed to the Temple. I seemed to see the throng of worshippers and to hear their chant: 'I was glad when they said unto me, let us go into the house of the Lord. I will pay my vows now in the presence of all the people, in the court of the Lord's house, in the midst of thee, O Jerusalem! Praise ye the Lord!'"*

402. Jerusalem is still surrounded by a wall, varying in height from 20 to 60 feet, according to the undulation of the ground. Near the base of this wall, at the foot of Mount Moriah, travellers have noticed some very large bevelled stones, which are supposed to be the re-

mains of the ancient foundation laid by Solomon.

403. This wall runs across the northern part of Mount Zion, which is now, for the most part, a neglected waste.

- 404. "On its summit, at some hundred paces from Jerusalem, stands a mosque, and a group of Turkish edifices, not unlike a European hamlet, crowned with its church and steeple. This is Sion! the palace, the tomb of David! the seat of his inspiration and of his joys, of his life and his repose! A spot doubly sacred to me, who have so often felt my heart touched, and my thoughts rapt by the sweet singer of Israel! the first poet of sentiment! the king of lyrics! Never have human fibres vibrated to harmonies so deep, so penetrating, so solemn. Never has the imagination of poet been set so high, never has its expression been so true. Never has the soul of man expanded itself before man, and before God, in tones and sentiments so tender, so sympathetic, and so heartfelt!" †
- 405. The same traveller forcibly describes the profound oblivion into which the proud structures of this renowned city have sunk:—

406. "Some pools, and the tombs of her kings, are the only memorials Jerusalem retains of her past eventful story: a



^{*} Rev. Mr. Wolcott.

⁺ Lamartine.

few sites alone can be recognised; as that of the Temple, indicated by its terraces, and now bearing the large magnificent mosque of Omar-el-Sakara: Mount Sion, occupied by the Armenian convent, and the tomb of David; and it is only with history in one's hand, and with a doubting eye, that the greater part of these can be assigned with any degree of precision.

407. "Except the terraced walls in the valley of Jehoshaphat, no stone bears its date in its form or colour: all is in ashes, or all is modern. The mind wanders in uncertainty over the horizon of the city, not knowing where to rest; but the city itself, designated by the circumscribed hill on which it stood, by the different valleys which encircled it, and especially by the deep valley of Cedron, is

a monument which no eye can mistake.

408. "There truly, was Sion seated; a singular and unfortunate site for the capital of a great nation: it is rather the natural fortress of a small people, driven from the earth, and taking refuge with their God and their temple on a soil that none could have interest in disputing with them; on rocks which no road can render accessible: amidst valleys destitute of water, in a rough and sterile climate; its only prospect, mountains calcined by the internal fire of volcanos—the mountains of Arabia and Jericho, and an infectious lake without shore or navigation—the Dead Sea. Such is Judea! Such the site of a people whose destiny it has been to be proscribed in almost all periods of their history, and with whom the nations have disputed even their capital, thrown, like an eagle's nest, on the summit of a group of mountains; vet this people was the chosen depository of the great truth of the Divine Unity, a truth, the inherent importance of which was itself sufficient to distinguish them from all other people, and to make them proud of their proscriptions, and confident in their doctrines of Providence."

409. All travellers agree in their representations of the overpowering impression produced by the first view of the Holy City, so singular in situation, so striking in

scenery, so sacred in hallowed associations.

410. The gloomy silence and solitude of this devoted city, in entire harmony with the stern and awful scenery around, are forcibly sketched by the same hand:—

411. "No noise arises from her squares and streets, no roads lead to her gates from the east or from the west, from the north or from the south, except a few paths, winding among the rocks, on which you meet only half-naked Arabs, some camel-drivers from Damascus, or women from Bethlehem or Jericho, carrying on their head a basket of raisins from Engaddi, or a cage of doves, to be sold on the morrow under the terebinthuses beyond the city gates.

412. "No one passed in or out; no mendicant even was seated against her kerb-stones; no sentinel showed himself at her threshold; we saw, indeed, no living object, heard no living sound; we found the same void, the same silence, at the entrance of a city containing thirty thousand souls, during the twelve hours of the day, as we should have expected before the entombed gates of Pompeii or

Herculaneum."

Obs. Our limits forbid us to pursue in detail either the topography or the history of the city of David. These are fully given in the invaluable "Researches" of Dr. Robinson.

413. Acre is a very strong fortress, considered the bulwark of Syria, and famous for its gallant resistance to Napoleon: but it quickly yielded to the attack of a British fleet. Jaffa (the ancient Joppa), and Nabulus near the ancient Samaria, are still places of consequence. Bethlehem, Nazareth, Jericho, are villages visited on account of their connexion with events in the life of our Saviour.

414. Armenia, including Diarbekir and Kurdistan, is a high mountain territory, on the upper course of the Euphrates and Tigris, great part of which is held by independent and plundering tribes, or is disputed by Persia, on which it borders. The chief cities are Erzeroum, Diarbekir, and Mosul, near which last are the remains of the ancient Nineveh.

415. IRAK-ARABI, the plain between the Euphrates and Tigris, was celebrated as the seat of the empire of Baby-

lon, and afterwards of the caliphate of Bagdad; but since it was subjected to Turkish dominion, it has lost its greatness. Bagdad is still a considerable city, at some distance from which are vast piles of bricks and rubbish, the remains of the ancient Babylon. The foreign trade is carried on from Bassora at the head of the Persian Gulf.

416. The chief islands are Cyprus, Rhodes, Scio, Samos, Cos, or Stanco, and Mitylene. These islands, famous in ancient history, are rich and beautiful, mostly inhabited by Greeks, who have suffered severely from Turkish oppression. Having lately made an attempt to shake off the yoke, they were overpowered, and exposed to the most cruel ravages.

ARABIA.

417. Arabia is an extensive peninsula, great part of which consists of sandy deserts. On its coasts are some flourishing towns; but the people of the interior are mostly wanderers and robbers, like their forefathers described in Holy Writ. The climate is, in many parts, hot and dry, and subject to pestilential winds. In some districts the soil is fertile, and the air salubrious. In the great deserts, travellers guide themselves by the stars and the compass as mariners do at sea.

Obs. In the seventh century, the successors of Mahomet spread their conquests from Arabia over great portions of Asia and Africa. Within the last fifty years great changes were produced in the religion of Arabia, by Abdul Wahab, whose numerous followers are called Wahabees; they obtained possession of the cities of Mecca and Medina, but were driven out and nearly crushed by the Pasha of Egypt, who, however, has been obliged to yield the territory to the Porte.

418. Arabia is generally divided into three parts; the Stony, the Desert, and the Happy; but these divisions are very imperfect, and the following are the principal recognised in the country itself:—1. Hedjaz; 2. Yemen; 3. Ommon; 4. Nedjed.

419. Hedjaz is a territory in general rude and rocky, though it contains some well-inhabited valleys. The chief places are Mecca, the birth-place of the prophet Mahomet, and Medina, the place at which he was buried.

Obs. 1. Medina boasts of a stately mosque, supported on 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are kept continually burning. Mahomet's coffin is covered with cloth of gold, under

a canopy of silver tissue.

2. Mecca, situated in a barren valley, is supported chiefly by the annual resort of many thousand pilgrims; its prosperity greatly declined during the power of the Wahabees, who long held possession of it, and deterred pilgrims from resorting thither; but, since they were driven out by the Pasha of Egypt, the route to Mecca has again been opened, and its prosperity restored.

- 420. Between the narrow branches of the northern extremity of the Red Sea, are Mount Sinai and Mount Horeb, on which are several cells or chapels possessed by monks. Here also is the wilderness where the children of Israel, on quitting Egypt, wandered forty years before their entrance into Canaan.
- 421. Yemen, on the south-western coast, merits the appellation of the Happy Arabia. Its hills, rising from the coast, are covered with fine coffee and other aromatic plants. Sana is the capital, but Mocha and Aden are the chief seats of commerce. The latter has lately been taken possession of by Britain, with a view to Indian steam navigation.

422. Ommon contains a number of sea-ports; among others, the great maritime and commercial state of Muscat. The Imam is very powerful, possessing many seaports on the coasts of Persia and Eastern Africa. Ras el Khyma, a great stronghold of pirates, has lately been

demolished by the British.

423. Nedjed forms the most interior part of Arabia, where the genuine Arab character most distinctly appears. Rude tracts are here intermixed with green pastoral valleys. Nedjed was the chief seat of the power of the Wahabees, and suffered severely in their downfall. Deraie, its capital, was then laid in ruins.

424. Arabian horses are much esteemed. Camels and dromedaries are the common beasts of burden. The coffee of Arabia is superior to that of all other countries:

it and gum are the chief articles of export.

Obs. The Arabs are excellent horsemen, expert at the bow and the

lance, good marksmen, and a brave people, inured to live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds. Their dress is a blue shirt, tied about them with a sash or girdle, over which some of them throw a vest of furs. Each encampment is under a scheik, who acts as patriarch of the tribe.

JAPAN.

425. The JAPAN islands form an extensive, rich, populous, and remarkable empire. The largest is Niphon; and the chief towns are, Jeddo, Meaco, the spiritual capital, and Nangasaki.

426. This empire trades only with the Chinese, and prohibits all other foreign intercourse under pain of death. The Dutch only are allowed to send one annual ship to

Nangasaki.

427. The religion of the Japanese is idolatrous. The government is absolute, and was originally administered by a spiritual potentate, named the Dairi; but another officer, named the Cubo, who acted as general, has usurped the entire authority, and only allows the other a revenue, with which he resides in empty pomp at Meaco.

Obs. The Japanese language is so peculiar, that it is rarely understood by the people of other nations. The sciences are deservedly esteemed among the Japanese, who have schools for rhetoric, arithmetic, poetry, history, astronomy, &c., attended by no fewer than from 3000 to 4000 scholars each.

428. Jeddo, the capital, and residence of the military ruler, is a very splendid city, with a spacious palace and mansions of the nobles, who are obliged to reside there for half the year. Meaco, inhabited by the Dairi, is not so large or rich, but considered more elegant, and contains nearly 4000 temples. The population of the whole empire has been stated at thirty millions, but may be estimated, with greater probability, at twenty millions. The arts and sciences are much cultivated. Their rich lackered cabinets prove the superior ingenuity of the people. In other respects their manufactures are inferior to those of China.

429. The climate is fine, the face of the country beautiful, and agriculture is held in high estimation. In all

respects Japan is a great and interesting empire; but, holding no intercourse, it is little known to foreign nations.

Obs. Other islands of Asia are, Jesso, to which Europeans trade for furs, and which is partly subject to Japan; Macao, lying in the Bay of Canton, belonging to the Portuguese; and the island of Saghalien, or Tchoka, belonging to Chinese Tartarv.

THE ORIENTAL ARCHIPELAGO.

430. This archipelago consists of a range of large islands. lying to the south of India beyond the Ganges, and of China. Though immediately beneath the equator, these islands are well watered by numerous streams, descending from high mountains in the interior: hence the plains are generally very fruitful, though rudely cultivated. They produce the finest spices in the world, and abound in rice, sago, and teak timber. The natives are divided into the brown or Malay race, who are imperfectly civilised, and the Papuas, or oriental negroes, who are almost complete savages. The Dutch are nearly entire masters of this archipelago, with the exception of the Philippines. which belong to Spain.

431. The following are the chief islands and groups of

this archipelago: -

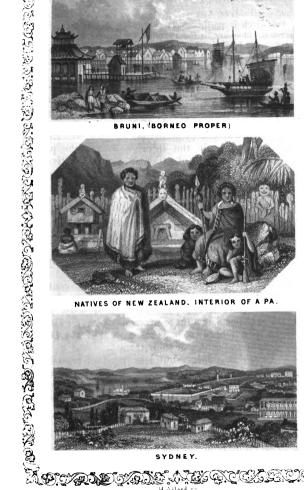
(1.) Java, the richest and most populous, contains about six millions of people. It has noble forests of teak: coffee, sugar, rice, and pepper are raised with great success. The exports amount to upwards of three millions. Batavia, on its northern coast, is the capital of the Dutch

settlements, and the centre of their trade.

(2.) Sumatra is a large, but less productive, island. Its inhabitants, however, are spirited, warlike, and enterprising. Acheen, Siak, and Menangkabao, are the chief native states. The principal Dutch settlements are at Padang and Bencoolen, the last formerly British. The most noted productions of Sumatra are camphor and pepper. In its vicinity, the little island of Banca contains inexhaustible mines of tin.

(3.) Borneo and Celebes. — The former is the largest







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island in the world, except New Holland, but very uncultivated, and the people almost in a savage state; yet it contains valuable mines of gold and diamonds, the former of which are worked by Chinese settlers. On the north-west coast is the territory of Sarawak; and its capital Sarawak with a population of 12,000 is under the government of Sir James Brooke, who first visited the island in 1839, and has since been actively engaged in the suppression of piracy, the administration of justice, and the encouragement of commerce and manufactures. Off the north coast of Borneo is the island of Labuan now belonging to Britain. Celebes is a smaller island, but more populous, and several of its tribes display a very active commercial spirit.

(4.) The Moluccas and Bandas, celebrated under the name of the Spice Islands. These are the native country of the finest of spices, the nutmeg and clove, which have never been cultivated elsewhere with equal success. The Bandas, which produce the nutmeg, are a very small group; the chief of the Moluccas are Gilolo, Ceram, Ternate, Tidore, and Amboyna, to which last the culture of the clove has been studiously confined by the Dutch, who have exercised, in regard to these articles, a rigid monopoly, which has much limited their own trade in them.

(5.) The Philippines, of which the chief are Luconia and Mindanao, form a large and fertile group, which the Spaniards have occupied, but not very actively improved. They carry on, however, a considerable trade from Ma-

nilla, the capital, which is a large city.

(6.) The islands are of volcanic formation, and contain a chain of active volcanoes. The group is within the range of the monsoons, and violent hurricanes are common. Vegetation is exceedingly luxuriant. Rice, millet, maize, sugar, indigo, hemp, tobacco, coffee, and cotton, are raised; and sago, cocoa-nuts, bananas, cinnamon, numerous fine fruits, and timber for shipping, are among the products. The chief manufacture carried on is that of "government Manilla" cigars, which employs 20,000 hands at a royal factory in Manilla.

AFRICA.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

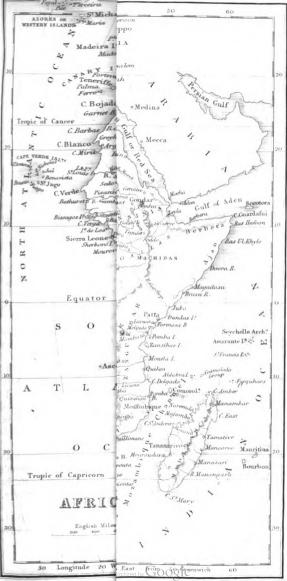
432. Astronomical Position, Extent, Boundaries.—This continent, which has the form of a vast peninsula, is situated between 37° 20′ N. and 34° 50′ S. latitude, and between 17° 32′ W. and 51° 22′ E. longitude. Its greatest length from Ras-el-Kran to Cape Agulhas is about 5,000 miles; its greatest breadth from Cape Verde to Cape Guardafui is 4,618 miles. Its superficial area is about 12 millions of square miles.

433. It is bounded on the north by the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean, which separates it from Europe; on the east, by the Isthmus of Suez, Red Sea, and Indian Ocean, separating it from Asia; on the south by the Southern, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean.

434. General Aspect.—This continent is a solid mass of land, its coast-line being in no part broken into large peninsulas, islands, bays, or gulfs. About one third of the continent lying to the north of the twelfth parallel consists of a vast plain of moderate elevation. The Atlas range of mountains bounds this plain on the north. To the south of the twelfth parallel, the continent is supposed to be occupied by a table-land of considerable elevation. Unlike the other great divisions of the globe, Africa is almost without water communication.

435. Seas, Bays, Gulfs.—The Red Sea or Arabian Gulf, Formosa Bay, Delagoa Bay, Algoa Bay, Simon's Bay, St. Helena Bay, Longo Bay, Gulf of Guinea, Bight of Benin, Bight of Biafra, Gulf of Sindra, Gulf of Strera, Gulf of Tunis, Gulf of Cabes.

436. Straits and Channels. — The Straits of Babelmandeb, joining the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea; Mo-



zambique Channel, between the island of Madagascar and the continent; and the Straits of Gibraltar.

437. Promontories and Capes.—On the north, Cape Bon and Cape Serra; on the east, Capes St. Francis, St. Lucia, Delgado, and Guardafui; on the south, Capes Palmas, Negro, Good Hope, and Lagullas; on the west, Spartel, Noun, Bajador, Blanco, and Verde.

438. Islands. — Socotra, Madagascar, Comoro Isles, Mauritius, Bourbon, St. Helena, Ascension, Fernando Po, St. Thomas, Cape Verde Isles, Canary Isles, and

Madeira. For a further account see page 130.

439. Mountains. - The Atlas range skirts the northwestern portion of the continent, between Cape Bajador and the Gulf of Sidra: the western part of this range is called the Great Atlas, and the eastern part the Little Atlas. A range of mountains, forming the northern edge of the great south table-land, is supposed to extend from about 10° W. longitude, eastward across the continent to Cape Guardafui. The western part of this range bears the name of the Mountains of Kong. Of the central range little is known; it is called by the Arabs Jabel-el-Kumri, or the Mountains of the Moon. The eastern part, called the Mountains of Abyssinia, is detached, and runs in the direction from north to south, forming a chain remarkable for its elevation and extent. Along the south-eastern coast extend the mountains of Lupata, or the back-bone of the world. Near the southern extremity of the continent there is a range of mountains, some portions of which are of great elevation; these are Nieu Velat, Compassberg, and the Table Mountain. The mountains along the south-western coast have received no particular name.

440. Between the Nile and Red Sea there are several ranges of considerable elevation.

441. Table-lands, or Mountain Plains.—The great table-land of South Africa is less known than any other portion of the continent, the nature of the surface rendering it extremely difficult to penetrate from the sea coast into the interior. The table-land seems to rise in

a succession of terraces from the ocean towards the central mass. The first terrace on the south is called the Long Kloof, and the second the Great Karoo.

442. Volcanoes.—These seem to be confined to the islands: the only one of importance is that of Teneriffe.

443. Plains.—The great plain which stretches from the Atlas Mountains, southward to the Mountains of Kong and the southern table-land, contains two different countries, the sterile and the fertile, the former called the Sahara, and the latter Soodan.

444. Valleys.— The valley of the Nile is the only one of

note in this continent.

445. Deserts.—The Egyptian Desert stretches along the north-west shores of the Red Sea, and to the south of this extends the Nubian Desert: the Libyan Desert lies between the last-mentioned desert and the great Sahara.

446. The Sahara, or sea of sand, covers perhaps ninetenths of the whole plain. On the west of the meridian of Greenwich, it extends from the foot of the Kong Mountains (15° N. latitude) to that of Mount Atlas (about 30°), occupying the whole width of the plain, which is here 1.000 miles across.

447. But its breadth is no where less than 750 miles. It is divided into two parts by a tract of stony country, by which it is traversed from north to south between 13° and 15° E. longitude, and which in parts offers some cultivable land, while in others the stony surface is covered with sand. By following this stony tract Messrs. Denham and Clapperton, who set out from Tripoli, succeeded in reaching Soodan. That portion of the desert which extends between this tract and the Atlantic Ocean is called Sahal, and is almost entirely covered with a fine sand, which, being agitated by strong easterly winds, appears like the surface of the sea, and often rises in the air in the form of sand-spouts. Low hills and wells occur in a few places, and water in many parts.

448. All the western part of the Sahara would, owing to its burning heat and the want of water, be totally impassable were it not that it is here and there interspersed with

verdant well-watered spots or oases, which appear like islands of the blest in the midst of desolation. The ancients compared them to the spots on a leopard's skin. These oases are mostly of very limited dimensions; but some of them, particularly those on the east side of the great desert, are very extensive: the country of Fezzan, for example, is, in fact, an oasis. They are usually surrounded by higher land, which serves to account for the springs, and consequently the verdure, for which they are so celebrated.

449. Rivers.—The only rivers worthy of notice are the Nile, the Senegal, the Gambia, the Kawara, Quorra, Jolibu or Niger, the Zaire or river of Congo, the Gariep, and the Zambeze or Zambizi.

450. Lakes.—The principal lakes are the Tchad, Tjad, Schad or Chad, the Fittre, the Dibbie, Debo or Djebon, the Dembea or Tzana, the Birket-el-Keroun, the Salt Lakes of Melgig, Shott and Londeah in Barbary, and the Maravi, which is said to exist in the interior.

451. During the year 1849, two very large lakes, Neyassi and the Ngami, were discovered in the interior of South Africa.

452. Soil. — Where well watered the soil is very productive, as is the case in the regions of the Nile, Senegal,

and Niger.

453. Climate. — Situated as the continent is, almost wholly within the torrid zone, it may be regarded as warmer than any other of the great divisions of the globe: every part within the limits of the tropics is burnt up by continual heat, and there is nothing to moderate this heat and dryness but the annual rains, the sea-winds, and the elevation of the soil. The year is divided into the dry and rainy seasons. The great extent of the rainless regions seems to be one of the principal causes of the high temperature of the continent.

454. Minerals.—The most important are diamonds and other precious stones. Gold-dust is principally obtained from the sands in the upper parts of the rivers, and forms a chief article of export.

455. Silver, copper, and lead, are found in moderate quantities. Iron is generally diffused throughout the con-

tinent. Salt also is plentiful.

456. Vegetation. — As regards vegetation, Africa may be divided into three regions, — the Atlantic, the Equinoctial, and the Austral. In the first region, along the shores of the Mediterranean, wheat, barley, maize, rice, the grape, the fig, olive, and the date come to perfection. In Egypt the acacias yield gum arabic, and the cassias the medicinal senna. In Abyssinia the coffee-tree grows wild: this is supposed to be its native country.

457. In the Equinoctial region there are forest trees of great size, the most remarkable of which is the baobab, the largest species of trees in the world; and the age of some specimens has been estimated to be nearly 6,000 years. The African teak and sak are inhabitants of this

region.

458. The Austral region has a different form of vegetation: there are endless varieties of heaths, some of which

are of great beauty.

459. In various parts of the continent the banana, the orange, lime, and lemon, the tamarind, cocoa-nut, cotton, and sugar-cane flourish, and also maize, tobacco, mandioc, and pine-apple, which have been introduced from America.

460. Animals.—These are more numerous than in any of the other great divisions of the globe. In the northern and central regions are found lions, panthers, jackalls, gazelles, and antelopes. The one-humped or Arabian camel is abundant in the north. Everywhere the antelopes are plentiful.

461. To the south of the Sahara are found the elephant, the two-horned rhinoceros, the giraffe, and the hippopotamus. Monkeys of various species are numerous within

the tropics.

462. South of the tropic of Capricorn are the elephant, buffalo, numerous species of the antelope, the zebra, the quagga, the engallo, and the wild boar.

463. The birds of northern Africa resemble those of Europe and Asia. The ostrich inhabits the central sandy

regions. In the equinoctial regions, parrots and parroquets, and birds of most beautiful plumage are innumerable. Rapacious birds, as large carrion vultures, griffons, chincows, oricows, kites, sparrow-hawks, vultures, bats, buzzards, and falcons, are generally diffused throughout the continent. Crows, guinea-fowl, grouse, and partridges are abundant.

464. The rivers and lakes are frequented by the virgin, Balearic cranes, the rose-coloured flamingo, the

pelican, and a great variety of waterfowl.

465. Among reptiles are to be found a great variety of the lizard family, from the chameleon up to the crocodile: many of them are noxious, as boa constrictors, the scorpion, &c. There are also almost every species of noxious reptiles, enormous spiders, termites or white ants, and locusts.

466. Fishes.—In the tropical seas, sharks and dolphins are numerous. In southern Africa fish is extremely abundant, and of every kind. During the winter season, whales, porpoises, sharks, and seals frequent various parts

of the coast.

467. Races of Men.—The varieties of the human family occupying this portion of the globe are not only much greater than those found in Europe, but the difference in colour, form, and stature are much wider. There are about seven varieties,—viz. the Negro, the Nubian, Numidian, Egyptian, Abyssinian, Hottentot, and Kaffre.

468. It is only the central or equinoctial regions that are inhabited by the numerous races and varieties of the black-coloured, woolly-headed people, which are classed by naturalists as the Ethiopic or black race, or negroes properly so called.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

469. Africa has been divided variously, as one standard or another has been adopted, but the barbarism of the people, and our imperfect knowledge of them, render it

impossible to give an accurate arrangement of the political divisions.

470. The following, however, will be found to be pretty correct.

States.				Capital and Chief Towns.	Population
Egypt	6.3		-	Cairo and Alex- andria	2,500,000
Barbary States	T-50	4.00	1		Age of the same
Tripoli -	-		-	Tripoli	500,000
Tunis .	-	-	-	Tunis	2,500,000
Algiers -	47.00		-	Algiers	2,500,000
Morocco -	-	-	-	Morocco	6,000,000
Abyssinia -		-	-	Gondar	3,000,000
Nubia	4	1		Sennaar	2,000,000
Bornou, &c		-	-	Bornou	5,000,000
Houssa	1000	医 病		Soccatoo	6,000,000
Darfur -	18 F. L. 18	41	-	Cobbe	250,000
States on Niger		Alf of	6.	Timbuctoo	20,000,000
Dahomey -			VI-	Abomey	2,000,000
Ashantee -	SELS.		3	Coomassie	4,000,000
Western Coast	Market .	700	MA.	Benin, &c	20,000,000
Eastern Coast	1924	1	1	Mozambique -	10,000,000
Southern Coast of	r Cape	Colo	ny	Cape Town -	1,000,000
Natal		-	1	Pietermaritzburgh	Vene

471. EGYPT consists of a narrow valley along the Nile, bounded on each side by ridges of rocky hills. It is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower, which last is formed into a delta, by the lower branches of the Nile, and is exceedingly fertile. If not the parent, Egypt was, in early times, the nurse of arts and letters. Its temples, pyramids, and tombs, the monuments of its ancient grandeur, are of stupendous magnitude, surpassing those of any other country. Many of the walls are entirely covered with sculptures, paintings, and hieroglyphics.

Obs. The sculptured statues are so large, that figures thirty, forty, or sixty feet high are not uncommon, and many busts weigh many tons. The paintings represent all the arts and employments. The hieroglyphics record the history and circumstances, but till lately they were



CAIRO. FROM THE SOUTH.



ECYPTIANS, THE BASTINADO.



ALGIERS

unintelligible, and the study of them has thrown much new light on ancient history.

- 472. The pyramids near Cairo are always ranked as wonders of the world. They were tombs of certain kings or Pharaohs, built about 2500 B.C. The largest is 593 feet high, and covers 11 acres at its base; the second is 428.
- 473. Egypt sunk into great degradation beneath Turkish dominion; but somewhat revived under the late Mohammed Ali. He made extraordinary efforts to restore agriculture and manufactures, re-opened the ancient canals, and studiously introduced the arts and civilisation of Europe. His yoke was, however, oppressive to the people. He conquered Nubia, and was master of Palestine, Syria, and great part of Arabia; but from these he was expelled by the British.

474. Grand Cairo, the capital, is a large and splendid city. The ports are, Alexandria, Rosetta, and Damietta: but the principal ruins are at Thebes and Dendera, in

Upper Egypt.

475. BARBARY extends along the Mediterranean, from the Atlantic to Egypt, and includes the Mahometan States of Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and the empire of Morocco. It forms a beautiful and fertile region, once flourishing, but long sunk under tyranny and oppression. The most atrocious piracies were carried on from the seaports; but these have been suppressed by Britain; and the French have now taken possession of Algiers, the chief seat of these outrages, and are endeavouring to colonise the territory. Constantina and Bona are the chief towns.

476. Abyssinia is an extensive country to the southeast of Nubia. It is traversed by high mountains, between which are many fertile valleys. The Abyssinians are a barbarous people, delighting in bloodshed, feeding on raw flesh, and sometimes cutting slices from the living animal. Great part of the country has been overrun by the Galla, a still more savage race, who ride on oxen, and adorn themselves with the entrails of those animals. They are masters of Gondar, the capital, and of the finest

central provinces; but there is still a native government in the northern province of Tigré, and another in the southern districts of Shoa and Efat.

- 477. Nubia is a long narrow range of territory extending upwards along the Nile, whose waters fertilise two or three miles on each side, beyond which are extensive Many of the rocks which rise on the banks are sculptured into spacious temples and pyramids, of which the chief are at Ibsambul and Merawe. The people are rude, lawless, and corrupted by the prevalence of the slave trade. Nubia is divided into a variety of states, of which the chief are Dongola, Merawe, Shendi, and Sennaar. The Pasha of Egypt lately conquered all these countries, but holds them by a somewhat precarious tenure. To the south-east of Nubia are Kordofan and Darfur, rude countries, inhabited by a barbarous people. South of Darfur is Donga, a mountainous territory, from which the Nile is said to take its rise.
- 478. Central Africa consists of an extensive region, separated from the countries on the coast by vast forests and deserts, but comprising now the most improved and cultivated tracts of that great continent. The continued range of the Mountains of the Moon, under various names and aspects, crosses it from west to east, and gives rise to the Niger, with its tributaries, and to other great rivers which unite in forming the lake Tchad. The plains are thus well watered, and extremely fruitful, yielding in abundance grain, indigo, and cotton, which is skilfully woven into fine cloth. The inhabitants consist partly of negro nations, who are more industrious and intelligent than in other parts of Africa; partly of Moors and Felatas, whose ancestors migrated from Egypt and Barbary.

479. This region is divided among many nations, which cannot be here fully described; but the following are the

principal: -

480. 1. Bornou is an extensive plain, immediately west of the lake Tchad, and watered by the river Yeou. It is fertile, but imperfectly cultivated, and the inhabitants

are uncivilised. They are almost at constant war with the people of Beghermé, a large country to the north-east of the lake. Loggun, on the river Shary, which falls into the Tchad, is a wealthy and industrious country. Mandara is a fine plain at the foot of a vast range of mountains. These nations are negro, yet have been converted to the Mahometan religion, which they profess with bigoted zeal.

481. 2. Houssa is a fine and extensive region to the west of Bornou. The Fellatas, who inhabit it, are an industrious and intelligent, as well as warlike, race; and the country being well cultivated, yields in abundance wheat, fruits, vegetables, cotton, and indigo. The sultan of Soccatoo holds at present supreme sway over the states composing Houssa, which were conquered by his predecessor. They are chiefly Kashna, Kano, Zegzegoober, and Zamfra. Soccatoo, and Zaria, the capital of Zegzeg, are the largest cities; but Kano is the chief seat of the caravan trade. Numerous slaves, brought from the mountainous country in the south, are here sold to the Barbary merchants. Adamoua and Jacoba are situated beyond the mountains, on the great river Shary, but are little known.

482. The countries on the lower Niger, recently explored by Lander, who died on the 27th of January, 1834, in consequence of a musket ball he received in his hip from some barbarous natives, being well watered, and in many places inundated by that river, are extremely fruitful; but, in approaching the sea, they become marshy and unhealthy. The Niger here rolls a magnificent stream several miles broad, and resembling an inland sea; and it receives the Tshadda, almost as large as itself, flowing The people in this region are from countries unknown. generally negro and pagan; but they have made a greater progress in the arts than the nations on the coast. Youri, with a large and strong capital of the same name, is very populous, yielding large harvests of rice. The people are brave, but the king has incurred just reproach by the

attack which terminated in the death of Park, and by the extortion practised toward Lander. Boussa, Kiama, Wawa, and Niki are also considerable states. Yarriba, having Eyeo for its capital, is a very large and populous kingdom; Nyffe, on the opposite, or eastern side of the Niger, is distinguished for manufacturing industry, its cloths and mats being superior to any other made in Africa. The chief towns are Rabba and Koolfu. Zagoshi, on an island in the Niger, is possessed of numerous barks, with which it carries on an extensive trade. Funda is a great city on the Tshadda: Kirree and Eboe, on the Delta of the Niger, though surrounded by forests and swamps, are enriched by their trade with the coast.

483. The countries on the upper Niger are also rich and industrious. Timbuctoo has been long celebrated as the seat of the caravan trade with Morocco for slaves and gold. Bambarra is a fine plain watered by the Niger; and Sego, its capital, is large and flourishing. Jenné, Sansanding, and Walet, are also great seats of inland trade. Almost all the streams which flow from the mountains in the south of this country contain gold, which is extracted by agitation of the cascalho or gravel in water.

The internal trade of Africa is carried on by caravans, or parties of some hundred dealers, who convey their merchandise on droves of camels, and stop at certain protected places, where they establish fairs and make sales and exchanges. Caravans which leave Egypt or Barbary have to pass over extensive deserts, where many perish.

484. On the Western Coast of Africa are innumerable tribes of people, and various kingdoms, watered by the rivers Senegal and Gambia, on which are many European forts and settlements; but the climate is, unfortunately, extremely unhealthy, and fatal to Europeans. The French settlements are on the Senegal, with a view to the gum trade.

485. Guinea is divided into the *Grain*, the *Ivory*, and the *Gold* coasts; it formerly supplied Europeans with slaves. Behind the Gold coast are the extensive kingdoms of Ashantee and Dahomey, which have made some

progress in the arts; but they carry on war with dreadful ferocity, and celebrate the death of their kings with thousands of human victims. Gold and ivory are the

chief exports from this coast.

486. Benin, Waree, Brass, Bonny, and Calabar are situated on a succession of great estuaries, which form the mouths of the Niger. The country is a dismal swamp, covered with forests; but great quantities of palm oil and many slaves are brought down from the interior. The great river Zaire, with the countries of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela, present the most interesting objects on the more southern coast, and are all peopled with ill-civilised negroes. They contain the Portuguese settlements of Loando and Benguela, whence numerous slaves are conveyed to Brazil.

487. On the Eastern Coast, the Portuguese have Mozambique, Sofala, and Quillimane, at the mouth of the great river Zambese. They draw from the interior, gold, ivory, bees-wax, and slaves. Farther north is the Zanguebar, which has been dreadfully ravaged by the Galla, and whose coast is chiefly in possession of the imam of Muscat. The Galla have destroyed Melinda, its former capital; the chief places now are, Mombaza, Magadoxa, and Lamoo. Near the coast are the flat fertile islands of Zanzibar, Pemba, and Monfia. Farther north is the arid and desolate coast of Ajan; but Berbera, west from Cape Guardafui, is noted for the production of incense and odoriferous plants.

488. Sierra Leone, including Freetown, is an English settlement in Guinea, formed for the civilisation of the interior of Africa. The population consists of about

40,000, of whom only 100 are whites.

Obs. This settlement was expected to produce the happiest effects among the natives, and in due time to afford powerful means for effecting the civilisation of Africa, and destroying the slave trade; but the extreme unhealthiness of the climate has much impeded its success. On the adjoining coast, the Americans have founded the colony of Liberia on a smaller scale, but with favourable prospects. It has recently become independent.

BRITISH COLONIES IN AFRICA.

489. Cape of Good Hope or Cape Colony. - This is an important colony of Great Britain, occupying the south part of the peninsula of Africa, between latitude 29° 41' and 34° 51' S., and longitude 17° 10' and 27° 32' E.; bounded south and east by the Indian, and west by the Atlantic Ocean, north by the countries of the Namaquas, Griquas, and other Hottentot tribes. and north-east by British Kafraria. Length, west to east (Cape peninsula to Keiskamma river), 550 miles; average breadth 250 miles. Area estimated at 110,000 square Population (1845) 179,709, mostly Africans, Dutch, Negroes, and a small number of Hottentots. country is formed of a series of terraces, rising in successive stages from south to north. The chief mountainchains are the Drankensteen, Zwellendam, Zwartenberg, and Sneeuw Bergen, in which last is the Spitzkop or Compassberg. The culminating point of the whole is estimated at 10,250 feet. Table Mountain, at the southwest extremity of the colony, is an insulated flat-topped mass, 3,582 feet in height, the south point of which forms the promontory of the Cape of Good Hope, 1000 feet in elevation, in latitude 34° 22′ S., longitude 18° 29′ E.

490. It was discovered by Diaz, a Portuguese admiral, in 1486, and called by him "Cape of Storms." Cape Agulhas, the next remarkable promontory, is the southmost point of Africa, in latitude 34° 51′ S., longitude 20° 2′ E.; it gives its name to an extensive sandbank, and to an important current which flows from the Indian to the Atlantic Ocean. The most extensive plain is the great Karoo, an arid tract upwards of 200 miles in length and 50 miles in breadth, between the Zwarteveld and the Nieuwveld mountains. The only passage from one terrace to another is through the Kloofs, narrow and difficult mountain gorges: some of these have been made passable for wheeled carriages, but the roads are in general very bad. The principal bays are (from west to east) St.

Helena, Table, False (the west part of which forms Simon's bay), St. Sebastian, Mossel, Plettenberg, and Algoa. Streams are numerous, but rapid, mostly dry in summer, and unfit for navigation; the chief are, on the east and south coast, Keiskamma, Great Fish, Bushman, Sunday, Camtoos, and Breede; on the west, Berg and Elephant or Oliphant; and on the north, several small streams tributary to the Orange. Climate mild and healthy, but very dry; rains irregular, often falling in torrents on the coast, but rare in the plains of the interior. Snow falls only in the mountains, and is not permanent, even on the most elevated.

491. December and January are the warmest, and June and July the coldest, months. Mean temperature at Cape Town, in summer 58° 3′, in winter 76° 6′ Fahr. The greater number of diseases are unknown at the Cape: the most common are consumption and apoplexy. Few of the inhabitants attain an advanced age. Soil is fertile where sufficiently watered, but the general appearance of the country is sterile and monotonous. The arid steppes or Karoos of the interior are destitute of trees, and are covered with an ephemeral vegetation only after heavy rains. The flora of the colony is of a peculiar character, and is calculated to comprise 1200 species. which, however, are more remarkable for the variety and beauty of their flowers than for their uses. The most valuable is the aloe, the produce of which has been exported in one year to the amount of 2794l. A species of soda, found in the Karoo, is employed by the inhabitants in the manufacture of soap, and candles are made from the covering of the wax berry. European grains and the fruits of temperate and tropical regions have been successfully introduced. Corn is raised more than requisite for consumption, and the cultivation of the vine is an important source of wealth: a good white wine is produced in the interior, but only the small vineyard at the foot of Table Mountain produces the celebrated liqueur called Constantia. Cattle rearing is the chief branch of rural industry; and the introduction of Merino

sheep has rendered the rural trade of the colony important. The coast abounds with mackerel and herrings, and in 1842 the whale and seal fishery employed 144 boats. Some of the wild animals of Africa are still to be met with, but the larger species decrease in proportion as colonisation extends. The lion, hyena, buffalo, hippopotamus, and zebra are occasionally seen; the rhinoceros is rare, and the elephant is driven beyond the boundary. The ostrich and eagle are found in the mountains, and snakes are numerous. The commerce of the colony is extensive. The ports are Cape Town and Simon's Town in the west, and Fort Elizabeth in the east. The colony consists of an east and a west province, and these are divided into fourteen districts, -viz., Cape Division and Stellenbosch in the south-west; Zwellendam. George. Uitenhage, and Albany on the south coast; Clanwilliam on the north-west; Worcester, and Beaufort, Graaf Revnet, and Somerset in the interior; Colesberg on the northeast: Cradock and Victoria on the east. The capitals have the same names as the districts, except Graham's Town, which is the capital of Albany, and Fredericksburg of Victoria district. Stellenbosch is the chief wine, and Zwellendam the principal corn growing districts; the others are mostly appropriated to grazing. The government is vested in a legislative council consisting of five official members, viz., the governor, the second in command of the forces, colonial secretary, attorney-general, and treasurer; and five unofficial members, inhabitants of the colony, nominated by the governor: its debates are published. The Dutch founded a colony at the Cape in 1648, which was taken by the British in 1795.

492. Natal is a colonial possession of Great Britain, on the south-east coast of Africa, between latitude 27° 40′ and 30° 40′ S., and longitude 29° and 31° 10′ E., having south-east the Indian Ocean, west the Drakenburg or Kahlamba Mountains, north-east the Buffalo and Tugela rivers, dividing it from the Zooloo country. Estimated area 18,000 square miles. Population uncertain. Surface is undulating, well watered, and mostly covered

with tall grass. Timber in the interior grows only in clumps, but the sea-coast is bordered by a belt of mangroves. The climate is most healthy, and the soil is reported to be far more fertile than that of the Cape Colony. Cotton and indigo grow wild, and the former has been produced for exportation, of the finest quality. Sugar, coffee, wheat, oats, beans, and tobacco, are important crops. Superior coal has been found in the interior: building stone is found all over its surface; and iron ore is abundant. Down to September 1847, the land let by the government has fetched 34,995l., of which 10,3121, were for lands rented within that year. Butter, corn, hides, ivory, tallow, tobacco, and wool, were lately amongst the chief exports. The territory, which is a dependency of the Cape of Good Hope, is administered by a lieutenant-governor, assisted by a board of officers; and it is subdivided into the districts of D'Urban, Pietermaritzburg, Umvoti, Impafane, Upper Tugela, and Umzinvate, exclusive of a tract in the south, hitherto without an established magistracy. Pietermaritzburg, the capital, is fifty miles inland from Port Natal, which is near the centre of the coast-line.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

493. The island of *Madagascar* is one of the largest in the world, being 850 miles in length, and 250 in breadth. It is a very fertile country; but the inhabitants, divided into numerous tribes, are in general barbarous. Radama, one of the most powerful princes of the island, concluded a treaty for the abolition of the slave trade with the English government, and made great efforts for the improvement of the island, which have been interrupted by his premature death. Off the coast of Madagascar is the French island Bourbon, and to the eastward of that, is the Mauritius, or Isle of France, now belonging to Great Britain. Off the west coast of Africa is the rocky isle of St. Helena, an English colony and a desirable port, famous as having been the residence of the emperor

Napoleon. Ascension, a little to the north of St. Helena, is a small barren isle; it has a safe and commodious harbour, and abounds with fine turtle. The English have an establishment on this lonely isle. The Cape Verde islands, ten in number, of which the chief are St. Jago and St. Antonio, belong to the Portuguese, and produce a valuable breed of asses.

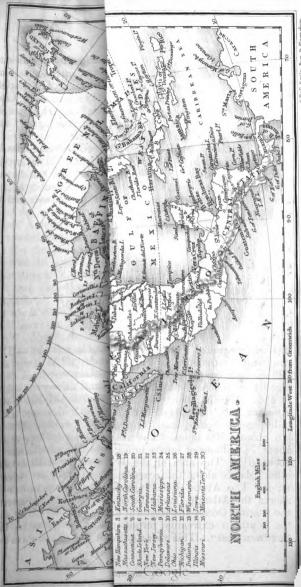
494. The Canary, called anciently the Fortunate Islands, are a fine group, more to the north. The chief are the Grand Canary and Teneriffe, in which is the famous Peak, two miles and a half in perpendicular height. Madeira, still farther north, is famous for its wine and its healthful climate

AMERICA.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

495. Astronomical Position, Extent, Boundaries. - This continent is situated between 35° and 170° W. long, and 72° N. and 56° S. lat. Its greatest length, from Point Beechy on the Arctic Ocean to Cape Horn on the south, is about 18,875 miles. The greatest breadth of North America, along the parallel of 51° N. lat. is about 3,250 miles, and of South America, along the parallel of 5° S. lat. about 3,200 miles. The area of North America is about 71 millions of square miles, and of South America about 61. The area of the West India Islands and other islands along the coast is about 150,000 square miles. The Arctic Polar Ocean washes the northern shores, the Atlantic Ocean the eastern and south-eastern the Pacific Ocean the western and south-western, and the southern extremity terminates in a point in the Southern Ocean. This vast continent was unknown to the



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inhabitants of the Old World till 11th October, 1492, when it was discovered by Christoval Colon (latinised Columbus), in an attempt which he made to sail in that direction to the East Indies. The first land he descried was Guanahani, or Cat Island, one of the Bahamas. In subsequent voyages, he explored the islands since called the West Indies, and visited the mainland of South America. Other voyagers discovered other regions, the most valuable of which have been colonised by Europeans, who have driven out or subdued the original inhabitants. America is so named from Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, one of the early discoverers.

496. General Aspect.—Under this head we shall consider the configuration of the surface of both North and South America. Upon referring to the map we observe that between these there is a striking resemblance. Both are of a triangular shape, and each contracts as it advances towards the south. Each has a lofty ridge of mountains abounding in volcanoes stretching along its western coast, and each has a great central plain watered by the most magnificent rivers upon the surface of the globe. The surface of each may be divided into five physical regions,

as follows:—

497. North America.—1. The maritime regions, forming the eastern slopes of the Allegany Mountains, and extending along the shores of the Atlantic. 2. The great northern plain beyond the 50th parallel, which is spread over with immense lakes, and resembles the Siberian plain in surface and the nature of its climate. 3. The great valley of the Missouri and Mississippi, which extends from 46° N. lat. to the Gulf of Mexico on the south, and from the Allegany or Appalachian on the east, to the Rocky Mountains on the west. 4. The elevated and maritime regions westward of the Oregon or Rocky Mountains. 5. The elevated table-land of Central America, lying between the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea on the east and the Pacific Ocean on the west.

498. South America.—1. The basin of the Orinoco, on the north, which is surrounded by the Andes and their

branches. 2. The basin of the Amazon, which is covered with dense forests. 3. The great southern plain through which flow the Rio de la Plata and its tributaries. 4. The Brazilian table-land, which lies to the east of the Parana and Araguay. 5. The western slopes of the Andes, and the low country between this chain and the Pacific Ocean: this region may be again subdivided into two climates, one to the north the other to the south of Lake Titicaca.

499. Seas, Bays, Gulfs.—1. In the Arctic Ocean: Kotzebue Sound, Elson's Bay, Mackenzie's Bay, Dease's Inlet, Smith's Bay, Harrison's Bay, Liverpool Bay, Franklin Bay, Darnly Bay, George IV. Coronation Gulf, Bathurst Inlet, and Melville Sound, Prince Regent's Inlet, Fury and Hecla Sound. 2. On the Atlantic Coast: Hudson's Bay, to the south of which is James's Bay, Gulf of St. Lawrence, Bay of Fundy, Passamaquoddy Bay, Penobscot Bay, Massachusetts Bay, Narranganset Bay, Long-Island Sound, Delaware Bay, Chesapeake Bay, Long-Island Sound, Pamlico Sound, Raleigh Bay, Onslow Bay, Long Bay, St. Helena Sound, with numerous others along the southern shores of the United States.

500. The Gulf of Mexico, which sends off numerous small bays into the southern coast of North America; the Caribbean Sea, which extends along the eastern coast of Central America, and the north coast of South America; the Gulf of Paria, between the continent of South America and the Island of Trinidad; Gulf of Maracaybo or Venezuela, Gulf of Darien, Bluefield's

Sound, Bay of Honduras.

501. All Saints' Bay, on the east of Brazil, estuary of the Rio de la Plata, and the Bays of St. Matthias, St. Joseph, Nueva, Camarones, St. Jorjie, and Grande on

the east coast of Patagonia.

502. On the west coast of South America, are the Gulfs of Trinidad, Penas, and Guayaquil; on the west of Central America, the Bay of Panama, Bay of S. Miguel, Gulf of Parita, and Gulf of Nicoza; on the west of North America, the Gulf of California, or Vermilion

Sea, Port or Bay of San Francisco; on the north-west coast, Queen Charlotte's Sound, Nootka Sound, Norfolk Sound, Cross Sound, Admiralty Bay, Prince William's Sound, Cook's Inlet, Bristol Bay, and Norton Sound.

503. Straits and Channels.—Cumberland and Frobisher's Straits on the west side of Davis's Straits, Straits of Belleisle, Straits of Florida, and the Strait of Magellan.

504. Promontories and Capes.—On the west of Hudson's Straits is Cape Wolstenholme, and on the east is Cape Chudleigh; Cape Charles, east of Labrador; Cape Race, east of Newfoundland. Along the east coast of North America are Capes Conso, Sambro, Head, Sable, Arm, Cod, Montauk Point, Sandy Hook, May, Henlopen, Charles, Henry, Hatteras, Lookout, Romain, Canaveral, Florida.

505. In the Gulf of Mexico, Cape Catoche, Cape San Antonio, and Cape Cabo de Cruz, west of Cuba; Capes Negril and Morant, in Jamaica; Tiburon and Engamo, in Hayti; Gracios and Dios, north-east of Guatemala; San Roque and St. Augusta, north-east of Brazil. Along the east shores of South America, Cape Trio, Santa Maria, San Antonio, and San Juan; Cape Horn south of Terra-del-Fuego. On the west coast are Capes Tres Montes, Corrientes, San Lucas, Mendoano, Romanzoff, Prince of Wales, Lisburn, and Icy Cape on the east side of Bhering's Sea.

506. Peninsulas.—The principal ones are Melville Peninsula, to the north of Hudson's Bay; Labrador, and Nova Scotia, in Canada; East Florida, in the United

States; Yucatan and California, in Mexico.

507. Islands.—In the Arctic Ocean are the islands of Sabine, Melville, Bathurst, and Cornwallis; in Baffin's Bay, Disco, Waggat, Baffin's and Carey's Isles; in Hudson's Bay, Southampton and Mansfield Islands, Resolution, Charles, Savage, Mill, Salisbury, and Nottingham Isles. In the Gulf of St. Lawrence are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, and Anticosti. In the Atlantic, are Long Island, and the Bermudas or Sommer's Isles. The islands lying between North and South America are known as the West Indian Islands, of which

there are three principal groups,—the Bahama, the greater Antilles, and the lesser Antilles. The Bahamas include Bahama, Abjaco, Andrios, New Providence, Glenthera, and San Salvador or Cat's Island (the first land of the New World discovered by Columbus,) with Exuma, Long, Crooked, Acklin, Mariguana, Juagua, and the group called Providence Isles. The greater Antilles comprise Cuba, Hayti or St. Domingo, Jamaica, Porto Rico, and Grand Cayman. The lesser Antilles comprehend the Leeward and Windward Islands; the former include the Virgin Isles, St. Croix, St. Martin, St. Christopher or St. Kitt's, Barbuda, Antigua, Montserrat, Guadaloupe, Desirado, Mariegalante, and Dominica. The Windward Isles comprise Martinique, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, Grenada, Tobago, and Trinidad. In the Caribbean Sea are several small islands; the principal are Margarita, Buen Ayre, Curacao, Paraguana, Pen, Oruba, and the Caxones or Hobbies. In the South Atlantic Ocean are Terra del Fuego, Staten Island, and the Falkland Islands: farther southward are Georgia, the South Orkneys, and the South Shetlands. Off the west coast of South America are Adelaide, Wellington, Narborough, Chiloe, Juan Fernandez, and the group of the Galapagos. Off the west coast of North America are South Catalina Isle, Vancouver Isles, and Quadra, Queen Charlotte Isle, Prince of Wales Isle, New Archangel, Sitka, Kodiak, Aleutian Isles, George, Pribuiloff, Gore Islands, and Lawrentia.

508. Mountains.—These may be divided into nine principal groups or systems; three of which belong to North America and three to South America; one to the

Arctic and one to the West Indian Archipelagos.

509. In North America: 1. the Arctic system embraces all the mountains within the Arctic circle. 2. The Rocky Mountains, which begin near the mouth of the Mackenzie river 69° N. lat., 138° W. long. and run southeasterly to the parallel of 38° N. 3. The Mexican range, which commences at the last-named parallel and embraces three principal ranges, namely, those of Mexico, Guate-

mala, and Veragua. 4. The Californian or Maritime range, which commences in Russian America: it runs at no great distance from the sea to the peninsula of California. 5. The Allegary or Appalachian system, extending along the eastern side of the valley of the Mississippi.

510. In South America: 1. The Andes, which commence at the Bay of Panama and run pretty closely along the coast of Cape Horn. The name Cordillera, sometimes given to the entire range, belongs properly only to the highest ridge, which is in the neighbourhood of the equator. 2. The system of La Parime or Guiana, embracing the mountain ranges which run parallel to the equator and to the north of it. 3. The Brazilian system, which comprehends the mountains that lie between the Amazon, Paraguay, and Rio de la Plata.

511. In the West Indies: 4. The system of the Antilles, embracing the mountains in the Archipelago of

that name.

512. Table-lands, or Mountain Plains.—These are of great variety, elevation and extent. The most remarkable are: the Plateau of Anahuac in Mexico, at an elevation of from 6000 to 9000 feet above the sea level, the plateau of Titicaca, the plateau of Quito, and the plateau of Brazil.

513. Volcanoes.—The great mountain range which stretches along the western side of both North and South America presents a terribly volcanic character. In North America there are a great number of active volcanoes: the largest are Tuxtla, Orizaba, Popocatepetl, Jurullo, and Colima.

514. In South America the most important are Cotopaxi, Antisana, Tunguragua, and Villarica. In the West

Indian Islands there are three active volcanoes.

515. Plains. — These are unequalled in the world for their vast extent. In North America an immense plain stretches from the shores of the Frozen Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico, and from the Rocky to the Allegany Mountains, forming the basins of the Mississippi, Missouri, St. Lawrence, and the numerous tributaries of these rivers.

516. In South America are, the plains or *Lianos* of the Orinoco; the forest plains or *Selvas* of the Amazon, comprising the whole central part of South America, and the plains or *Pampas* of the Rio de la Plata, which extend between the Andes and the mountains of Brazil, to the Atlantic Ocean and the Straits of Magellan.

517. Valleys.—In South America, in the regions of the Cordilleras, the valleys are of the most magnificent grandeur: those of Chota and Cataco are long, deep, and

narrow, and of surpassing beauty.

518. Deserts.—In North America, the great American desert is bounded by the Rocky Mountains on the east, and the Snowy Mountains on the west.

519. The deserts of South America are, "Campos Parexis," "El Gran Chaco," "Las Salinas," Atacama, and

the shingle desert of Patagonia.

520. Rivers. — The rivers of America are on a much larger scale than those of the other continents, and the facilities they afford for internal communication are unequalled in the world. The principal are as follows:—

521. In North America. — The Mississippi, which, taken in connection with the Missouri, has a course of about 4,500 miles, is the largest fresh-water stream on the surface of the globe. Some of the most important tributaries are, St. Peter's, Penaca or Turkey, Iowa, Chacaguar, Des Moines, St. Croix, Chippewa, Wisconsin, Rock River, Illinois, Kaskaskia, Salt, Maramec, St. Francis, White, Arkansas, Red River, Ohio, Hatchy, Zazco, and Big Black.

522. The other large rivers are, the Mackenzie, Churchill, Nelson, St. Lawrence, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehannah, Potomac, James, Del Norte, Colorado,

Sacramento, and the Oregon or Columbia.

523. In South America. — Maranon, Orellana, or River of the Amazon, rises in the Lake of Lauricocha in the Andes, and after a course of about 2880 miles, falls into the Atlantic Ocean. Its principal tributaries are, the Huallaga, Ucayali, Napo, Yavari, Putumayo, Yutay, Yurua, Yapura, Teffe, Purus, Negro, Madeira, Tapajos,

and Xingu. The other large rivers are, the Rio de la Plata or River of Silver, the Parana, the Paraguay, the Orinoco, Magdalena, Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, Co-

rentyn, Surinam, and San Francisco.

524. Lakes. — The largest in North America are, Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario; called the five great lakes. The other principal lakes are: the Lake of the Woods, Winnipeg, Winnipigoos, Athabasca, Great Slave, Great Bear, Wollaston, Deer, Big, Abbitibbi, and Misstassin, in British America; Lake Chaplain, and George, with several others, in the United States; the Tule Lakes in California, and the Lake of Nicaragua in Central America.

525. In South America.—Maracaybo, Lake of Titicaca, Aullagas, and the Lake Xarayes, along the River

Paraguay.

526. Soil.—The soil of this vast continent is exceedingly various. The basins of the large rivers, the Mississippi and the Amazon, are exceedingly rich and fertile; the northern part of North America and the southern part of South America may be considered extensive barren wastes.

527. Climate. — From the fact that the continent stretches through four of the five zones, and that its mountains are of great elevation, there is, consequently, every variety of climate. Generally speaking, the temperature is lower and more humid than in the same latitudes in the Old World.

528. Minerals. — The mineral riches of America are probably superior to those of any of the other great divisions of the globe. Gold and silver are found in less or greater abundance, copper, lead, iron, &c. Coal, including anthracite, is found in the United States, British America, and in Chili. Diamonds are more abundant in Brazil than elsewhere.

529. Vegetation. — The products of every climate abound in the different regions of this continent, and in some its vegetation is most exuberant. The forests and pastures are unrivalled for their extent, luxury, and

magnificence. The trees are pines and birches, with an endless variety of oaks, maples, cypresses, tulip trees, mahogany trees, logwood, Brazil wood, &c. Vast quantities of sugar, cotton, tobacco, coffee, cocoa, are produced, as well as dye-woods and medicinal barks.

530. Animals.—The largest wild animals are the bison, musk ox, and reindeer, confined to North America; immense troops of wild horses wander over the prairies and pampas. The llama, guanuco, puco, and vicuma inhabit Peru, and the tapir is found in Peru. There are several species of dogs, the most remarkable of which are the Newfoundland dog and the arctic fox. The beaver inhabits North America. The horse, ox, sheep, and hog have been introduced from Europe. The beasts of prey are few: a number of bears, some of them of the largest and most formidable description, are found in the arctic regions; the grizzly bear inhabits the Rocky Mountains; the puma is found in both North and South America; but the jauguar is limited to South America.

531. The birds are exceedingly numerous. The condor, which is the largest and most powerful of the feathered tribes, inhabits the most inaccessible parts of the Andes. Eagles, vultures, falcons, and other birds of prey are numerous; a species of ostrich roams over the pampas. The woods are the resort of macaws, parrots, and parroquets, and of wild turkeys and pigeons, &c. Waterfowl are exceedingly numerous: along the water-courses there are myriads of flamingoes, scissorbeaks, fishing falcons,

cormorants, herons, &c.

532. Tropical America abounds with a great variety of apes. The vampyre bat, which is confined to South America, attacks the larger animals, and even man himself when asleep. As its bite is not sufficiently painful to awaken the victim, the bleeding it occasions sometimes proves fatal.

533. This continent is infested by an immense number of reptiles, the most common of which is the rattle-snake; but there are others less venomous. The true boa constrictor is found in the swamps and marshes of Central

America. Centipedes, enormous spiders, scorpions, &c., abound in these regions.

534. The inferior animal tribes are in great variety, and

many of them are peculiar to this hemisphere.

535. Fishes:— The waters abound with fish: the number and variety in the Ohio is particularly great. In the fresh waters there are a surprising number of bivalve shells. The tropical rivers produce enormous lizards and alligators; and in the lakes of Caraccas is found the gymnotus or electric eel. The fisheries of mackerel, herring, and particularly that of cod on the coast of Newfoundland, are very important.

536. The domestic animals are the horse, ox, and sheep; but of all the domestic animals pigs seem to be

the most numerous.

537. Races of men.—The American race is supposed to be derived from the Mongolian family. The native inhabitants, however, differ in form, language, and in intellect from any other variety of the human race. The cheek-bones are prominent, arched, and rounded; the face broad, but not flat; the skull generally light; the forehead low; eyes deep-seated; nose rather flat, but prominent; the skin red, more or less dark or coppercoloured; the hair thin and lank, and little or no beard. In this class are comprehended all the native American tribes, excepting, of course, the Esquimaux and the descendants of European and African colonists.

538. Since Columbus discovered this country a tide of emigration has flowed from Europe to America, and by far the greatest portion of the population is now of European descent. North America is principally peopled by Britons and their descendants; a considerable number of French in Canada, some Germans in Pennsylvania and New York, and Dutch, Swedes, and Spaniards in other

localities.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

539. The following are the different states and colonies in America and the West Indies.

States, Territories, and Colonies.	Capitals.	Estim. Pop. (latest census.)
British North America -	Kingston, Que-	2,121,150
Russian America	E Boo, Estonaton	61,000
Danish America (Greenland)		7,600
United States, and West)	Washington	17,062,600
Territory -	Mexico	6,650,100
Mexican Confederation - Independent Indian Territory	0,000,200	
Independent indian Territory	26,252,450	
1	Total North America	
Central American Confed	Guatemala -	1,900,000
Yucatan	Merida	472,900
British Honduras	Truxillo	10,000
1	Cotal Central America	2,382,900
Hayti	St. Domingo	1,000,000
Spanish West Indies, (Cuba, Porto-Rico, &c.)	Havannah	1,410,220
British West India Isles	Kingston	902,070
French, ditto	Basseterro	249,040
Dutch, ditto		24,400
Danish, ditto		43,180
Swedish, ditto (St. Bartho-)		7,000
lomew)	d, West India Islands	
1	3,635,910	
(Venezuela	Maracaybo, Caraccas	945,250
Columbia New Granada - }	Santa Fe de Bogota Carthagena -	1,686,000
Ecuador -	Quito	600,000
British	Georgetown	98,130
Guiana French	Cayenne	20,370
Dutch	Paramaribo	57,000
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro -	4,170,230
Peru (North and South)	Lima	1,500,000
Bolivia	Chuquisaca	1,030,000
Argentine Republic or La Plata		675,000
Paraonay	Assumption	300,000
Urnousy (Banda Oriental)	Monte Video -	250,000
Uruguay (Banda Oriental) - Chili and Araucania -	Santiago	1,000,000
Patagonia, Tierra del Fuego,		' '
and the Falkland Isles	}	1
	Total South America	12,331,980
1	44,603,240	

THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

540. The British colonies are very extensive, though in many parts barren and thinly inhabited. They include Canada, with half of the great lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior; also Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward's Islands; New Brunswick, Labrador, Newfoundland, the Bermudas, and other islands; and the territory of Belisle in Central America.

541. Canada was formerly divided into Lower or Eastern, and Upper or Western, each having a separate governor; but an insurrection having broken out in 1837 among the French inhabitants of the former province, the two were united on 23d July, 1840, and the seat of government fixed at Kingston, on Lake Ontario. The character and circumstances of the two provinces, however, are still different. Lower Canada is a level and fertile country, though in a cold climate, and is situated mostly to the north of the river St. Lawrence. The inhabitants are chiefly descendants of early French settlers, still professing the Catholic religion. The population exceeds half a million. The chief towns are Quebec and Montreal, both finely situated, and carrying on a great com-Upper Canada, lying to the north of the great lakes of Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, is still more fertile, though hitherto very thinly inhabited; but numerous emigrants now proceed from this country as agricultural settlers, so that it already contains above 400,000 inhabitants, and is yearly increasing. Toronto, at the western end of Lake Ontario, was the largest town and seat of government; but Kingston, at the opposite extremity, being made the capital of all Canada, will, dcubtless, greatly increase. A great quantity of lumber is sent to the West Indies, and timber and grain to England; to facilitate the transport of which, several canals have been cut at great expense.

542. Nova Scotia, with the attached island of Cape Breton, has a long range of deeply indented roads along the Atlantic. Many parts are rocky and marshy, so that it does not invite numerous emigrants; but the fishery and timber trade are extensive, and there is an inexhaustible supply of coal. Halifax, with a very fine harbour, is the chief naval station of Britain in America. The population of Nova Scotia is about 160,000. Prince Edward, a small fertile island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence,

with 48,000 people, has a governor of its own.

543. New Brunswick forms an extensive country, included in Nova Scotia till 1785, when it was made a separate government. It is covered with magnificent forests, particularly of pine, the produce of which is exported to the value of nearly 500,000l. The soil also is fertile, fitted either for grain or pasturage; and though emigrants have generally preferred Upper Canada, they begin to resort hither. The population probably exceeds 295,000. St. John's, at the mouth of the great river of that name, is the largest town and port; but Fredericton, higher up, is the seat of government. The chief timber trade is on the Miramichi, and in a cluster of large villages near its mouth.

544. Newfoundland, with the adjacent coast of Labrador, is rocky and barren; but it is the seat of the greatest cod-fishery in the world, which is carried on from the shore by British subjects, and in the open sea by the French and Americans, who are allowed to dry and cure the fish on unoccupied parts of the coast. Of late years the herring fishery has become very important. There is also a great seal fishery upon ice islands in the neighbouring seas. The whole produce of fish and oil exported exceeds the value of 700,000l. The population is about 75,000. St. John's, the capital, is a great fishing station in a spacious bay.

545. The Bermudas are a group of small islands, far out in the Atlantic, about 600 miles from the United States' coast. They are famed for the beauty and salubrity of their climate, but are chiefly valued by Britain

as a naval station.

546. Belide, or Balize, is a British colony in Central

America. The country is adapted for raising sugar. Coffee, cotton, indigo, mahogany, cedar, sarsaparilla, logwood, fustic, brasileto, and other dye-woods, are articles of export. Wild animals, birds, fish, and turtle are abundant. The population, which is chiefly composed of negroes, may amount to about 10,000. The capital is Balise, a scaport town situated on the Bay of Honduras. Population in 1836, 2,543.

547. Russian America comprehends the N. W. coasts from latitude 55° to 70° N. and longitude 141° to 168° W. In the territory, and also on the Aleutian Islands between America and Asia, Russia has some small settle-

ments with a view to the fur trade.

548. Greenland, or Danish America, is an extensive region of N. E. America. The surface is generally high, rocky, and barren; the elevated parts are covered with eternal snow and glaciers. Small quantities of corn, potatoes, and kitchen herbs are raised. The natives, or Esquimaux, are a peculiar race, allied to the Mongolian family, of short squat stature and dark skin, employed chiefly in fishing and seal hunting.

THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

549. The United States of America occupy the middle division of North America, and are bounded north by the British possessions; east by New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; south by the Gulf of Mexico and United States of Mexico; and west by the Pacific Ocean. They lie between 25° and 49° of N. lat., and between 66° 59′ and 125° W. long. from Greenwich. They are distinguished for the vast extent of their territory, their rapid improvement, and their free constitution. The greater part of the inhabitants sprang from England, and were colonies depending on her till 1775, when, in consequence of the attempt to tax them without their consent, they revolted; and, after a long contest, being aided by France, obtained in 1783 an acknowledgment of their independ-

ence. By purchase from France and Spain, they procured Florida and Louisiana, and acquired thus an undisputed title to the country on and beyond the Mississippi, as far as the Rocky Mountains, and a portion even as far as the Pacific.

550. The territory is thus of immense extent, and its western part contains vast tracts of unoccupied land, in the valley of the Mississippi, open for settlers, who for a trifling sum can obtain a large lot. Hence great numbers arrive, both from the eastern states and from Europe. From this cause, and the facility of subsistence. the population has increased more rapidly than in any other country. In 1791 it was 3,900,000; in 1841 it had risen to 17.068,000. Of these, however, nearly 2.500,000 are negro slaves, which exposes the nation to much reproach and inconvenience. The people are most industrious in extending their agriculture and trade; they export vast quantities of cotton, timber, tobacco, grain, rice, pitch, potash, and skins. Their ships are to be found in every part of the world. Their imports and exports amount each to nearly 30,000,000l. sterling. They have, besides, a vast inland traffic on the Mississippi, Ohio, and other great rivers. This they diligently extend by canals, railroads, and steam navigation, which they were the first to introduce on a great scale.

551. The Republic of the United States is governed by a President, chosen every four years; a Senate, which consists of two members chosen from each state, for a term of six years, and a House of Representatives, consisting of one member for every 70,680 inhabitants, omitting three fifths of the slaves. The representatives are elected for two years. These two last compose the supreme legislative body called Congress, which holds its meetings

at Washington, the capital of the Republic

552. The territory of the United States is divided into thirty states, each of which has a separate government, and the district of Columbia, and several territories. The following is a list of the States, their population in 1840, and their capitals.



NEW YORK.



NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS



VERA CRUZ, MEXICO.

L	States.		Capi	tals.			Population.
Γ	(Maine	-	Augusta	-	-	-	501,793
Ė	Vermont -	-	Montpelier	-	-	-	291,948
Northern.	New Hampshire	-	Concord	-	•	-	284,574
Ĕ.	Massachusetts	-	Boston	-	-	-	737,699
ž	Connecticut -	-	Hartford and				309,978
	Rhode Island -	-	Newport and	Pro	videno	ce	108,830
	New York -	-	Albany	-	-	-	2,428,921
	New Jersey -	-	Trenton	-	-	-	373,306
	Pennsylvania -	-	Harrisburg		-	-	1,724,033
Midland.	Delaware -	-	Dover	-	-	-	78,085
₫ {	Ohio	-	Columbus	-	-	-	1,519,467
ğ	Michigan ·	-	Lansing	-	-	-	212,267
٦	Indiana	-	Indianapolis	-	-	-	685,866
- 1	Illinois	-	Springfield	-	•	-	476,183
į	Missouri -	-	Jefferson Cit	y	-	-	383,702
ſ	Maryland -	-	Annapolis	-	-	-	469,232
- 1	Virginia -	-	Richmond	-	•	-	1,239,797
- 1	Carolina, North	-	Raleigh	-	-	-	753,419
- 1	Carolina, South	-	Columbia	•	-	-	594,398
- 1	Georgia -	-	Milledgeville	;	-	-	691,392
- [Kentucky -	-	Frankfort	-	-	-	779,828
i	Tennessee -	-	Nashville	-	-	-	829,210
1	Arkansas -	-	Little Rock	-	-	-	97,574
Southern.	Mississippi -	-	Jackson	-	-	-	375,651
8	Louisiana -	-	Baton Rouge	,	-	-]	352,411
-	Alabama -	-	Montgomery		-	-	590,756
	Florida	-	Tallahasse	-	-	-	54,447
	Texas	-	Austin	-	•	-	200,000
	Iowa	-	Iowa -	-	-	-	43,112
	Wisconsin -	-	Madison	-	-	-	30,945
i	California -	-	San Francisc	0	-	- 1	150,000

553. Texas was an extensive province of Mexico, adjoining the United States, adventurers from which, having occupied it, defeated every attempt of the Mexicans to dislodge them. They at first proclaimed it an independent republic, but in 1844 it obtained admission into the American Union. The country is fertile, and the interior enjoys a fine climate.

554. Territories.— District of Columbia, 43,712, Washington; Oregon, 20,000, Oregon city; Western, or Indian

(set apart for the permanent residence of the Aborigines); Minesota, St. Paul; Nebraska; New Mexico, Santa Fé; California, San Francisco. Washington, on the Potomac river, in the district of Columbia, is the capital of the United States, and became such in the year 1800.

555. New York is the largest city in the United States and in all America, having more than 312,000 inhabitants. Its commerce is supposed to exceed that of any city in the world, except London. It has left far behind it Boston, which, however, has 105,000 inhabitants, and is distinguished by intelligence and literature. Philadelphia. founded by the Quakers, is a regular, well built, and orderly city, with 228,000 people. Baltimore, with 102.500, and Charleston, with 50,000, are flourishing seats of southern trade. New Orleans was a poor and middling place till the rise of the western states, when its situation at the mouth of the Mississippi made it the seat of a vast and rising commerce, which has given to it already 102,500 inhabitants, and must speedily augment it further. It is still, however, in a somewhat rough and unfinished state. On a wild wooded spot upon the Ohio has sprung up, in thirty years, Cincinnati, a city of 100,000 souls, and carrying on a continual steam traffic. New towns, and even cities, are rising almost every year upon the great lines of river and canal. The seat of government is Washington, in the district of Columbia, beautifully situated at the junction of two branches of the Potomac. It was laid out with the view of its becoming a great city, but has not answered this expectation, the population not exceeding 23,000. The capitol, however, in which Congress here assembles, is the finest edifice in America.

THE NATIVE TRIBES OF NORTH AMERICA.

556. Numerous small tribes, or hordes, of from 500 to 5000 each, occupy the vast extent of country from the United States to the Pacific Ocean; also Greenland, Labrador, the regions around Hudson's Bay, and along the western coast, all in a barbarous condition, and depending on the uncertain produce of the chase. The British

companies at Montreal and Hudson's Bay despatch traders in all directions to collect from the Indians the valuable furs with which these regions abound.

557. The northern coast of America, only recently discovered, has been found to border on the vast expanse of the Arctic Ocean. It is inhabited by the Esquimaux. a race quite different from the Indians, and comparatively laborious, peaceable, and intelligent. They subsist by fishing, and chasing the wild and amphibious animals which abound on this coast. At the northern extremity of America, Captain Sir John Ross discovered a large peninsula called Boothia, partly inhabited. In the ocean beyond, Captain Parry discovered a range of large islands. of which the principal have been called Melville, Bathurst, and Cockburn. They are uninhabited, the climate being extremely severe, and in winter only a few of the most hardy animal tribes are able to subsist. A new continent has also been discovered by Captain Sir James Ross, a nephew of the explorer above mentioned, to which he has given the name of Victoria Land.

MEXICAN CONFEDERATION.

558. The isthmus that joins North and South America consists of the republic of Mexico and Guatemala; Mexico formerly included Old or Lower and New or Upper California, the latter now belongs to the United States. The chief towns are, Mexico, Puebla, Acapulco, and Vera Cruz. Mexico, the oldest city in America of which we have any account, is spacious and magnificent. The present constitution of Mexico resembles that of the United States of North America, being a federative republic.

559. Mexico consists chiefly of a high table-land, from which arise Orizaba, Tuxtla, Popocatepetl, Jorullo, and Colima, and other lofty volcanic peaks. It is fitted to produce the grain and fruits of the temperate climates. The maritime districts, indeed, are rich in tropical products, but unhealthy. Its chief value consists in the silver mines, which, at the beginning of the present

century, yielded annually nearly 5,000,000*l*. sterling; but they were greatly injured during the revolution, and, notwithstanding the application of a large British capital, have not been fully restored.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

560. Central America includes the republic of Guatemala, Yucatan, and Belize. Yucatan, a peninsular state of Central America, was declared independent of Mexico,

January 1st, 1850. For Belize, see page 142.

561. Guatemala, or Guatimala, the largest of the states of Central America, of which it is the republic, extends, together with Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and the Mosquito territory, from lat. 8° to 18° N., and long. 82° 30' to 94° W.; exclusive of these, Guatemala proper extends between lat. 14° and 17° N., and long. 89° and 94° W., having north Yucatan and Mexico, east Honduras and San Salvador, south-west the Pacific. Area 75,098 square miles. Population 700,000: larger portion aboriginal Indians; the other whites and mestizos. surface is very irregular, consisting of mountains, tablelands from 2000 to 5000 feet in elevation, and plains. The mountains are generally of volcanic origin, with several active volcanoes. Earthquakes are very frequent. Climate of the coast-valleys very hot and unhealthy; of the elevated country more temperate. Rainy season commences in June: dry season from October till May: north winds prevail in December and January.

562. The principal cities are, New and Old Guatemala, Quezaltenango, Coban, and Chequimula. New Guatemala, the capital, is situated in a rich and spacious plain, at an elevation of 4961 feet, and has a flourishing trade with Vera Cruz, Mexico, &c., in sugar, coffee, cotton, dyewoods, and other native products. It was founded after the destruction of Old Guatemala by an earthquake in 1773. Guatemala la Antigua, or Old Guatemala, lies twenty-four miles west-south-west of the newer capital, at the foot of the Volcan d'Agua, by an eruption of which it

was overwhelmed in 1541. It was again devastated by an earthquake in 1773, but has been since rebuilt, and is stated to have a population of 12,000 persons. Many of its old public buildings remain entire, comprising a fine cathedral and a palace. Around it are many sugar establishments, and in 1846 its exports of cochineal amounted in value to 6000l.

563. The republic exports indigo, barilla, cochineal, and the finest cocoa. At different elevations, this and all the adjacent states afford every climate and species of production. In a few hours the traveller may pass from regions of eternal snow, through European cultivation, to plains covered with sugar-canes and coffee-trees. But the country is in a most unsettled state, in consequence of

perpetual changes in the government.

564. Mosquitia, or the Mosquito Territory, is a maritime state extending from Cape Honduras to the mouth of the river San Juan. It is mountainous in the interior, elsewhere highly fertile, and abundantly watered. The climate is stated to be more healthy than that of the West India Islands. The principal towns are, Bluefields, or Blewfields, the capital: and San Juan de Nicaragua. Products comprise cacao, cotton, sugar, indigo, vanilla, and log-During the year 1846, a considerable immigration of Germans took place at Bluefields river. The government is a monarchy, under the protection of Great Britain, and chiefly administered by British residents. Early in 1848, the Nicaraguans attacked the Mosquito subjects in San Juan, but they were afterwards defeated by the British force at Sarapiqui, and agreed to retire from the territory, by a treaty with the British, March 7th, 1848.

THE WEST INDIES.

565. The West Indies consist of a group of islands lying between the continents of North and South America, and divided into the larger and smaller Antilles.

566. The former consist of Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and

Porto Rico; and the latter, of the Virgin, Windward, and

Leeward groups, called the Caribbee Islands.

567. The largest of these islands, Cuba (whose chief town is Havanna, a flourishing sea-port,) and Porto Rico, belong to Spain, and have of late advanced greatly in

culture and population.

568. Hayti, called also St. Domingo or Hispaniola, is one of the largest and richest of these islands. The western part formerly belonged to France, and the eastern to the Spaniards; but the negro slaves in the French part rebelled in 1791, and, after long and sanguinary contests, the whole island was united into one negro republic, under a President. But in 1849 part of the island was proclaimed an Empire, and the President Soulouque became Faustin I.

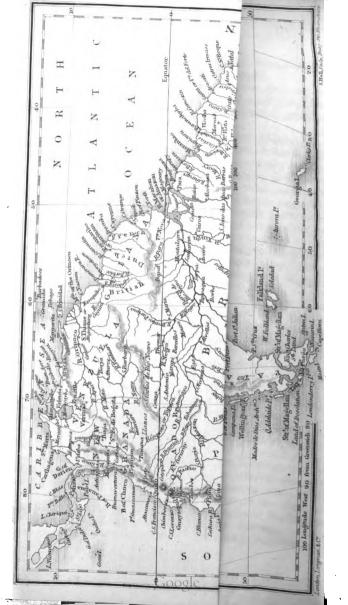
569. Jamaica is a large island belonging to the English, and in a high state of cultivation. Vast quantities of sugar, rum, and coffee are annually exported. Kingston

is the chief town.

570. Of the smaller Antilles, 1. the English islands are Trinidad, Tobago, Grenada, Barbadoes, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Dominique, Montserrat, Nevis, Antigua, St. Christopher's, Tortola, and Virgin Gorda; 2. the French islands are Martinique and Guadaloupe; 3. the Danish are St. Thomas, St. Cruz, and St. John; 4. the Dutch are St. Eustatius, St. Martin, and Saba; and, 5. the Swedish, St. Bartholomew.

571. The Bahamas, north from Hayti and Cuba, belong to the English, and are numerous, but small and unproductive. To the Dutch belongs Curaçoa (celebrated for giving name to the liqueur so called), off the north coast of Venezuela.

572. The native Caribs having been inhumanly destroyed by the sword and musket, these islands are now inhabited by about one eighth Europeans, one sixth Creoles, and the rest negroes, formerly in a state of bondage, but who, in the British islands, have been now completely emancipated. They supply Europe almost entirely with sugar, rum, and coffee, and furnish also some cotton, cocoa, and spices.



SOUTH AMERICA.

573. South America is a vast peninsula, comprising nearly half the American continent. It is distinguished by the grandeur of its natural features. The great chain of the Andes, in its loftiest height, extends from north to south, near the western coast; and the chief river, the Amazon, surpasses in the length of its course any other in the known world, except the Misissisppi. The Rio de la Plata and the Orinoco are also of very great magnitude. The mountains are the highest on the surface of the globe except the Indian chain of Himalava. Chimborazo. 21.000 feet high, was long supposed the loftiest in South America. but the peaks of Sahama and Aconcagua, are now found to be still more elevated; the latter, which is the highest, has an elevation of 23,907 feet. Cotopaxi is the most tremendous volcano known, often throwing out streams of warm water, with dead fishes; and its explosions, according to Humboldt, are heard at the distance of more than The plains are most extensive, and generally very fruitful; and the mines are unrivalled in their abundance of the precious metals.

574. The finest parts of this region, after their first discovery, were conquered by Spain, whose jealous and despotic policy checked that improvement which might have resulted from their vast natural advantages. Within the last twenty years, however, this yoke has been completely shaken off, and Spain does not now possess an inch of ground on the American continent. It has been formed into independent republican states, of which the principal are: Venezuela, New Granada, Ecuador, Peru (Lower and Upper), and Bolivia, lately erected into the Peru-Bolivian Confederation; Chili; and La Plata. Brazil, conquered by the Portuguese, has also become a separate state, with a free constitution. A portion of Guiana, and the most interior and southern parts of the continent, are still chiefly in the possession of native tribes.

575. Colombia is the most important of the new re-

publics, and that which earliest shook off the Spanish The eastern part consists of a range of very lofty mountains (including Chimborazo and Cotopaxi), with the declivities and deep valleys between them; while the western is composed of immense level plains called Llanos. The region is generally fertile, fit for every tropical product, and distinguished for its excellent cocoa. abundant in the eastern district of Choco.

576. Colombia has been much agitated by internal dissension, and has lately been split into three distinct parts, - Venezuela, New Granada, and the Ecuadór; united, however, by a federal compact. It contains a number of considerable cities, among which are, Caraccas, Cumaná, and Carthagena, on the north coast; Panamá and Porto Bello on the opposite sides of the Isthmus of Darien; Santa Fé de Bogotá, Quito, and Popayan, in the interior; and Guayaquil, on the South Sea. The population is about 3,200,000, including negroes and Indians, who have been invested with the rights of citizens.

577. Guiana is divided among different European nations. The English have the flourishing colonies of Demerara and Berbice, rich in sugar, cotton, and coffee; the Dutch have Surinam, also prosperous; and the French have Cayenne, famous for its pepper. interior, watered by the Orinoco, is claimed by the Portuguese; but is chiefly in possession of savage native The same may be said of the extensive tracts, in the centre of the continent, called Amazonia, though claimed by the Portuguese as part of Brazil.

578. Brazil occupies nearly the whole eastern coast between the La Plata and the Amazons, to an indefinite distance into the interior. It is a vast and fruitful plain, diversified by mountain ranges of moderate elevation, which, in this climate, do not obstruct culture: that of sugar and cotton has of late been greatly extended; too much, indeed, by means of the importation of negro slaves. Some parts of Brazil are also very rich in diamonds and in gold. The country was long despotically ruled by Portugal, but is now separated from

that kingdom, governed by a prince of the house of Braganza, but on a very free and constitutional basis. The population is upwards of four millions. Rio de Janeiro, the capital, is a large city, beautifully situated, and the seat of a great trade. Bahia, or San Salvador, and Pernambuco, are also flourishing sea-ports. Brazil alone is a continuous country, being 2000 miles long, and 1000 miles wide.

579. Peru. - This republic, which consists of a president and a congress of two houses, is situated on the western side of South America. The territory is occupied by the highest range of the Andes, with their offsets and intervening valleys. In the western districts rain has never been known to fall; but the ground is moistened by heavy fogs. The gréater part may be considered desert: but the eastern districts are clothed with immense forests. which are inhabited by large numbers of Indians. The mines of silver and mercury, which were the richest in the world, have greatly declined in value. The chief silver mines are at Pasco, and those of mercury at Guan-In the north agriculture is little attended to. cattle rearing forms the principal employment of the people; but the southern portion is inhabited by a very numerous agricultural and industrious Indian population, who have hitherto formed the fairest portion of the Peruvian state.

580. Lima, the capital, is the most beautiful city of South America, and carries on an extensive trade by its

port of Callao.

581. Bolivia. — So called from Bolivar, the Colombian president, who effected its liberation in 1823. This republic is situated to the south-west of Peru: the centre of the country is covered with ramifications of the Andes. The valley of Titicaca, in which is situated the lake of the same name, is rather fertile; but the region between the Andes and the Pacific is nearly barren, and is called the desert of Atacama. The plains of Moxos and Chuquitos are covered with dense forests: numerous streams from the Andes intersect the country. Gold is found in almost all the rivers. The productiveness of the silver

mines of Potosi were for a long time very great, though now on the decline. The foreign commerce is small, owing to the state being almost shut out by the Andes from contact with sea. Cuzco is the ancient capital of the Incas. Chuquisaca is the capital of the state and

seat of general government.

582. Argentine Republic, or La Plata, consists of an immense plain, watered by the river of that name, and reaching nearly across the continent, from the Atlantic to the Andes. Great part of the surface consists of wide plains, called pampas, covered with luxuriant herbags, and on which vast herds of wild cattle have multiplied, whose hides form the chief object of trade. The territory is formed into a sort of federal republic, the constitution of which is not yet fully settled. Buenos Ayres, the capital, is at the mouth of the La Plata, and the chief interior towns are Cordova and Mendoza.

583. Paraguay, on the upper part of the river, with its capital, Assumption, was till lately despotically ruled by the celebrated Dr. Francia, who died in 1841. This district produces the maté, or herb of Paraguay, used as

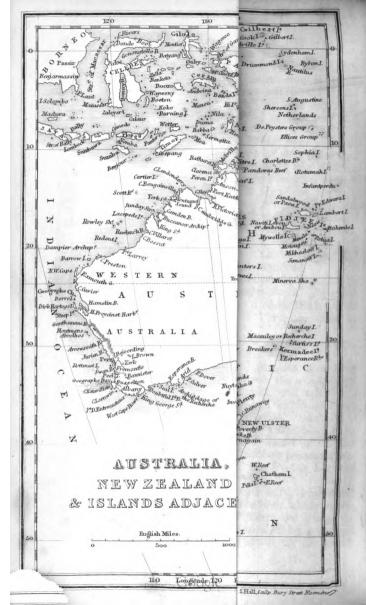
tea throughout all these countries.

584. Uruguay, south of the La Plata, forms now a sepa-

rate republic. Its chief town is Monte Video.

585. Chili, to the south of Peru, consists of a long, narrow, but very fertile plain, between the Andes and the ocean. It contains mines of gold, and still more valuable ones of copper. Industry and cultivation are yet imperfect, but in a progressive state. Santiago is the capital; but the chief trade is from Valparaiso, Conception, and Coquimbo. The large island of Chiloe belongs to Chili. The Araucanian Indians possess a considerable territory on the coast of the Pacific between lat. 37° and 40° S.

586. Patagonia, in the southern extremity, is inhabited by a tall and vigorous race, who have been falsely represented as giants; but the island of Terra del Fuego, on which Cape Horn is situated, is occupied by a meagre and stunted race.



AUSTRALASIA.

587. This name is given to a group of great islands, east and south of the Oriental Archipelago, and which, together, approach to the magnitude of a continent. The principal is Australia, or New Holland, which is under the dominion of Great Britain, and is about three fourths of the magnitude of all Europe, but has not yet been fully explored: a great portion is marshy and barren; but other parts, in different directions, are fertile and beautiful, and all under an auspicious climate. It is now

divided into the following settlements:—

(1.) New South Wales, the original colony, occupying the greater part of the eastern coast. The soil and surface are very various. Near the sea runs a ridge of mountains, which behind Sydney are steep, though not high; but to the south they rise into the Australian Alps, whose summits are covered with perpetual snow, and the streams from them greatly fertilise that region. The interior is watered by large rivers, the Lachlan, Macquarrie, Morrumbidge, and Darling, all appearing to unite in the Murray, which enters the southern coast, but by so shallow a mouth, that only small steamers can ascend. These rivers, too, during the summer, become partially dry, or spread out into marshes. The country, on the whole, suffers severely from drought; yet there are many pastoral districts where the sheep yield uncommonly fine wool, while others are well fitted for rearing cattle. The coasts afford great opportunities for the whale fishery.

This settlement was formed by Britain, in 1788, as a place of punishment, and it was hoped of reform, for criminals whose offences were not capital. Of late years the spirit of emigration induced many respectable individuals, possessed of capital, to settle there. The colony thus became very flourishing; but, in consequence of the great facilities of obtaining credit, and other causes, a gloom recently clouded its prosperity, which, how-

ever, it is gradually regaining. The population in 1836 was 77,000, but in 1849 it had risen to upwards of 212,000, of whom nearly 27,000 were convicts, in service among the settlers. Many even of the emancipated convicts have made large fortunes. Since 1841 transportation to New South Wales has ceased; convicts from England being now chiefly sent to Van Diemen's Land. Sydney, the capital, contains 25,000 inhabitants, and has houses, shops, and a display of wealth equal to the first-rate towns in England. The native population are extremely rude, and very thinly scattered, being not supposed to exceed 100,000. The northern division of this colony is called Cook's Land, in honour of Captain Cook, who first discovered it.

In the south-west part of this colony there has been formed a detached settlement at Port Philip the territory round which is now called Victoria. Being watered by streams from the snowy mountains, it contains peculiarly rich pasturages. Hence many emigrants have been attracted thither, and have founded the rising town of Melbourne. On the coast between it and Sydney there has been discovered a very fine tract called Gipps's Land

(2.) South Australia forms a vast tract to the west of New South Wales, which in 1834 was formed into a separate colony, reckoned to contain 300,000 square miles; but great part is still unexplored. The country produces all the choicest fruits of Southern France and Italy, such as vines, olives, mulberries, &c.; besides various metallic ores, especially lead and copper. The chief town is Adelaide on Spencer's Gulf, not far from the mouth of the Murray. The colony is in a promising state. Population 34,500.

(3.) Western Australia was founded in 1829, on the banks of Swan River. A colony was then sent out on a large scale; but, through some errors in the plan, it fell into disrepute, and the population in 1839 was only 2154. The land is not so good as in other colonies, and hence the disinclination of emigrants to proceed thither. A company has been formed to colonise a tract in the

south named Australind. Perth and Freemantle are the chief towns.

(4.) Another settlement has been formed at *Port Essington*, on the north coast. The climate is warmer, fitted for tropical productions, and its prospects are considered favourable. There is also a penal settlement for hardened

criminals at Norfolk Island, east from Sydney.

588. Van Diemen's Land, called also, from its discoverer, Tasmania, is a much smaller island, south of New Holland, separated by Bass's Strait. It has a temperate climate, and is more uniformly fertile, yielding wool of equal excellence, and being better fitted for grain. Hence, besides being a penal colony, it was for many years a favourite resort of emigrants; but the best sites are now nearly occupied. It contained, in 1848, 70,000 inhabitants, of whom 18,000 were convicts. The chief river is the Derwent, flowing into a bay in the southeast, on which lies Hobart Town, the capital, a considerable place. There are, also, fine settlements on the Tamar, ending in the north coast, at Launceston.

589. New Zealand consists of two large and one small island, called New Ulster, New Munster, and New Leinster. The large Islands, being separated only by a narrow strait, were usually considered as one. The whole is about 500 miles in length from north to south, and from 100 to 200 in breadth. Very high mountains range through the interior, but between them and the sea are many fertile valleys. There grows in abundance a plant named Phormium tenax, said to unite in a superior degree the qualities both of flax and hemp. There is, also, fine timber; and many districts are well fitted for grain, and the breeding of cattle; but sheep are not reared with the same advantage as in Australia. The natives, supposed to be about 200,000 in number, are a brave, spirited, but very ferocious race; yet, by good treatment, they have been found tractable: about 8000 have been converted to Christianity, and their habits thereby greatly improved. In 1835, a company was formed in England for colonising New Zealand, and from 1839 to 1841

several thousands were sent out. There have been founded Wellington, on the northern island, in the strait separating it from the southern; also Nelson, on the Bay of Islands; but the seat of the British government has been fixed at Auckland, on the Thames. There is also a detached settlement on the western coast, at New Plymouth. The Canterbury Association for founding a settlement on the south-east coast of New Zealand was incorporated by royal charter on the 13th November, 1849; and in September, 1850, the first party of emigrants left England to occupy the new settlement, which extends to the north and south of the promontory known as Banks's Peninsula.

590. Papua, or New Guinea; New Britain, New Ireland, and the Solomon Isles; New Caledonia, and the New Hebrides. These large islands are inhabited by savage tribes of the Oriental Negro race, and as yet little known.

POLYNESIA.

591. This name has been applied to numerous groups of islands scattered over the wide expanse of the South Sea. Though small, they are generally fertile and beautiful, and inhabited by mild but licentious and superstitious tribes. The principal are,—

(1.) The Society Islands, of which the principal is Otaheite or Tahiti; celebrated for its progress in the arts, and the polished and engaging manners of the inhabitants. They have been lately converted by the missionaries to the Christian religion, and have been induced to relinquish many revolting and superstitious

practices to which they were prone.

(2.) The *Friendly Islands*, of which the principal is Tongataboo, lie to the west of the Society Islands. They are inhabited by a handsome, intelligent, and courteous race of people. The country is well cultivated; but they have not yet adopted many European improvements. The Fidjee Islands, which adjoin them on the south-west, and the Navigators' Islands on the south-east, are not so

well known, and are inhabited by much more rude and savage tribes, who are even suspected of feeding on human flesh.

(3.) The *Marquesas*, named sometimes, from their discoverer, the *Islands of Mendana*, lie north from Otaheite. The natives are extremely handsome in their persons, though they disfigure them strangely by puncturing and tattooing. In their clothes, houses, and canoes they are inferior to the Otaheiteans, and have borrowed nothing from Europe.

(4.) The Sandwich Islands lie considerably north of the groups now described. They are very mountainous, Monta Roa being above 16,000 feet high, and there is a large and very formidable volcano. The plains, however, are fertile. The people are finely formed, vigorous, and active; and though, in a fatal conflict with them, Captain

Cook lost his life, their general conduct towards the

British has been honourable and friendly.

Tamahama, their late king, did much to improve his subjects by the adoption of European arts; and his successor visited England, where he unfortunately died. The people have been converted to Christianity; they have also improved in industry, and have opened a considerable trade with the United States. Owhyhee, Woahoo, and Atooi, are the principal islands. In Woahoo is Honororu, the chief sea-port.

(5.) The Caroline Islands form a numerous group in the western part of the Pacific. Hogole, Oualan, and Yap, are considerable: the people appear somewhat civilised, and skilled in navigation; but they are little known. The chains of Mulgrave, Wallis, and Radauk, to the eastward, appear only branches of the Carolines. The same may, perhaps, be said of the Pelew Islands, famous for the hospitable reception given there to Captain Wilson's shipwrecked crew, and for the visit of their prince, Lee Boo, to England, where he died.

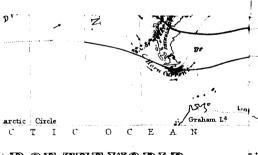
(6.) The Ladrone or Marianne Islands, to the north of the Carolines, are beautiful and fertile, but almost deserted, the native inhabitants having disappeared, while

the Spaniards have formed only a small establishment there. Guam and Tinian are the principal islands.

592. The Pacific contains long chains of small coral islands of very curious formation. They consist of the well known vegetable substance called coral, peopled by numerous insects, which ramifies and becomes encrusted with their shells, until it reaches the surface, and forms low flat reefs or islands. The chief are Gambier's Group, Serle and Bow Islands. Remarkable detached islands are, Easter Island, noted for the intelligence of the natives, and for certain colossal statues early found on it; and Pitcairn's Island, peopled by a body of British seamen who had mutinied on board the Bounty. Further east we may notice a recently discovered group, almost covered with ice and snow, named New South Shetland.

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CHIEF PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE EART

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PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. In the early pages of this work we alluded to the "Distribution, Form, and general Features of the Land," with the varieties of the human family, (see pages 12. to 14.), and subsequently we described the physical features of each of the great continents together with their mineral, vegetable, and animal productions, and their different races of men. We shall now proceed to notice some of the more important phenomena connected with the dry land, the ocean, and the atmosphere, and which are indicated upon the physical map. We shall then pass on to consider the condition of man in society, and some of the principal productions of the earth which form articles of commerce.

HIGH LANDS OF THE EARTH.

2. Mountain systems. — Mountains are the most prominent features of the earth's surface, and are generally distributed in ranges or chains. By inspection of the map of the hemispheres we observe that the mountain ranges lie for the most part in the direction of the greatest length of the continents: in the Old World therefore the ranges run nearly parallel to the equator, whilst in the New World they stretch in the opposite direction. Commencing on the north-east shores of Asia a lofty mountain ridge crosses that continent from east to west, and is continued with few interruptions through Southern Europe to the Atlantic Ocean. The north-east portion of this ridge receives the name of the Aldan mountains,

from which a branch called the Central Mountains shoots off into Kamchatka. The great chain is continued in the Yablony or Stanovoi mountains to the central highlands of Asia.

- 3. The eastern border of this plateau is formed by the Khing-Khan, In-shan, and Yung-ling mountains, which succeed one another in the direction from north to south, and send off into China two spurs called the Pe-ling. and the Nan-ling mountains. The Altai ridge bounds the plateau on the north. The Thian-shan or Celestial mountains, and the Kuen-lun, are supported upon its surface, and the lofty Himalaya forms its southern boundary. Along the western side run the Beloor-tagh mountains, which unite with the Himalaya in the great mountain knot called the Hindoo-Koosh. The highland is then continued westward in the table-lands of Afghanistan and Iran to the Elburz mountains on the south of the Caspian Sea, and thence in the mountains of Armenia and Taurus through the Peninsula of Asia Minor. The lofty range of Caucasus extends between the Caspian and Black Seas. The range is continued westward through Southern Europe, under the name of the Balkhan, the Alps, the Carpathian, the Cevennes, the Pyrenees, and terminates in the western extremity of the Cantabrian chain.
- 4. Several ranges seem to be unconnected with this great belt of highlands, such as the eastern and western Ghauts, and the Vindhya mountains in the peninsula of Hindoostan, the Ural mountains between Europe and Asia, and the Koelen and Dofrine mountains in the Scandinavian peninsula.
- 5. In Africa the Atlas mountains stretch along the shores of the Mediterranean. The Kong mountains, Mountains of the Moon (Arab., Jebel Komri), and mountains of Abyssinia occupy the central regions. The Lupata chain (spine of the world) runs through the south-eastern part of the continent, and its southern extremity is surrounded by the Snowy and Table mountains.
 - 6. In America the great mountain system begins near

the Mackenzie River, and runs southward through North America under the names of the Rocky or Oregon mountains, the mountains of Mexico and Central America, and is continued into South America in the chain of the Andes or Cordilleras.

- 7. Besides this continuous mountain ridge there are other independent ranges, as the Californian Alps in North America, which run along the north-west shores of and through the peninsula of that name, the Ozark mountains, between the Rocky and Appalachian mountains, the latter of which runs N.E. by S.W. through the United States.
- 8. In South America the mountains of Parime or Guyana run in a waving line between the Orinoco and the lower course of the Amazon, and several ridges intersect the table land of Brazil.

TABLE-LANDS OR PLATEAUS.

9. This term is applied to level or gently inclined tracts of land considerably elevated above the sea. The most

extensive on the globe are as follows:

10. Asia. The table-land of Central Asia, which comprises the plateaus of Mongolia (4000 feet), Tibet (10,000 feet), and Pamer (15,000 feet). The centre of this highland is occupied by the great desert of Gobi or Shamo. The Plateau of Afghanistan and Persia, at an elevation varying from 6000 to 7000 feet. The plateau of the Deccan (3000 feet) in the peninsula of Hindoostan. The table-land of Armenia (7000 feet) in Asiatic Turkey. The table-lands of Asia Minor and Arabia, each of which attains in many places an elevation of 4000 feet.

11. Europe. The largest in this continent is the plateau of the Spanish peninsula, which has an elevation on its northern side of about 3000 feet, and on its south of about 2000 feet. The plateau of Bavaria reaches a height of 2000 feet, and the southern extremity of the Scandinavian peninsula presents plateaus of moderate elevation.

12. Africa. The Sahara or Great Desert is a plateau

of moderate elevation: the whole of the African continent to the south of the fifth parallel of north latitude is sup-

posed to consist of a vast table-land.

13. America.—In North America, the lake district consists of a moderately elevated table-land, and eastward from the base of the Rocky Mountains there are a series of plains stretching eastward for 400 miles towards the valley of the Mississippi. The great table-land of Mexico or Anahuac attains near the city of Mexico a height of 9000 feet, and in Central America the plateaus of Guatemala and Honduras reach an elevation of from 4000 to 6000 feet.

14. In South America among the lofty ridges of the Andes there are plateaus of considerable extent; but the largest of them are that of Quito, under the equator, which is 9000 feet in elevation; that of Pasco between the eleventh and twelfth parallel, 11,000 feet; and that of Potosi or Titicaca, which contains the lake of that name, 12,700 feet above the sea-level.

VOLCANOES.

15. The term Volcano is applied to those mountains which send forth flame, smoke, ashes, streams of melted lava or mud. The principal regions in which active vol-

canoes occur are the following.

16. Asia. — The Aleutian Archipelago, Kamchatka, the Kurile Isles, Japan and the Philippine Islands, the Molucca and Sunda Islands to Barren Island in the Bay of Bengal. In central and south-western Asia there are several traces of Volcanic action.

17. Europe.—Vesuvius near to Naples, Etna in the Island of Sicily, and Vulcanello and Chicciola in the Lipari Isles, are frequently in activity. In Iceland there is Hecla and the Geysers or boiling springs.

18. Africa.—Traces of volcanic action appear chiefly in the islands. The peak of Teneriffe is a remarkable

instance of this.

19. America. — In North America. In the peninsula

of California there are five active volcanoes: the West India Islands contain three volcanoes, which are active Throughout Guatemala or Central America at intervals. and Mexico, there are no less than thirty active volcanoes. In South America, the mighty range of the Andes, from latitude 43° south, to about 2° north, exhibits an enormous volcanic system. In this chain no less than forty-six volcanoes have been enumerated, forty-one of which are said to be in action; some of these, as Cotopaxi. Antisana. Tunguragua, and other huge cones, are of prodigious grandeur and of frequent activity. Only one active volcano occurs in Peru. but in Chili there are nineteen active at frequent intervals, one of which (Villarica) burns almost uninterruptedly. Besides the district of active volcanoes, there are several regions which exhibit traces of volcanic energy, as the Western Highlands of Scotland. Central and Southern Germany, Northern and Central Italy, the Italian Islands, Central France, the Western Islands or Azores. In the West Indies, in the Mexican Mountains, and the chain of the Andes, and in several island groups of the Pacific Ocean, as the Banda Isles, New Guinea, New Britain, the New Hebrides, Norfolk Island, and St. Philip, the Friendly, the Society, the Ladrone, and the Sandwich Islands, from the bold and irregular form of their rocky coasts, show that they have been uplifted from the bed of the ocean by the resistless action of fire. In the two latter groups there are two active volcanoes of great elevation.

EARTHQUAKES.

- 20. Of all the phenomena of nature, earthquakes are the most terrific and destructive. They are of two kinds:—
- (1.) One kind, caused by the action of subterraneous agents and the explosion of volcanoes, is felt only at small distances, and always attended by eruptions or openings of the earth.
 - (2.) Another kind, felt at great distances, shakes exten-

sive tracts of ground without any eruptions taking place, and is therefore followed by less dreadful consequences.

21. Earthquakes seldom occur in the British islands; but, in 1755, Lisbon was destroyed by one, and they are of nearly annual occurrence in Sicily, and in the West Indian and East Indian islands, and in Mexico and Peru. In the list of mountains the letter (V) attached to the name of any mountain signifies that it is a volcano.

HIGH LANDS OF THE EARTH.

EUROPE.										
Mount Blanc			A 1				Feet.			
Mount Rosa	-	-	Alps	•	-	•	15,732			
	-	-	"	•	-	•	15,150			
Finster Aar-Horn	-	-	**	-	•	-	14,109			
Jungfrau -	-	-	"	-	-	-	13,716			
Ortler Spitz	-		,,,	•.	-	-	12,852			
Mulhacen -	-	-	Grenada, Sp	ain	-	-	11,678			
Nethon -	-	-	Pyrenees	-	-	-	11,427			
Perdu -	-	-	**	-	-	-	11,275			
Etna (V.) -	-	-	Sicily	-	-	-	10,873			
Monte Corno	-	-	Apennines	-	-	-	9,5 23			
Sneehaethan	-	-	Dofradeld, I	Norway	-	-	8,122			
Lomnitz -	٠-	-	Carpathian	•	-	-	7,962			
Punda -	-	-	Oural, Russi	a	-	-	6,780			
Monte Mezin	-	-	Cevennes	-	-	-	6,567			
Puy de Sancy	-	-	Auvergne	-	-	-	6,215			
Hecla (V.)	-	_	Iceland	-	-	-	5,210			
Ben-Mac-Dui	-	-	Scotland	•	-	-	4,390			
Vesuvius (V.)		_	Italy	-	-	-	3,978			
Snowdon -	-	-	Wales	-	-	-	3,500			
Stromboli (V.)	-	_	Lipari Isles	-	-	-	3,020			
,			ASIA.				•			
Dhwalagiri -	-	-	Himalaya	-	-	above	28,000			
Kunchinjinga	-	•	. ,,	-	-	-	28,174			
Javaher -	-	-	**	-	-	-	25,746			
Elburz -	-	-	Georgia	•	-	-	18,493			
Ararat -	•	-	Armenia	-	-	-	17,260			
Peak of Demawund	ì	-	Persia	-	-	~	14,700			
Kasibeck -	-	-	Georgia	-	-	-	14,400			
Ophir -	-	-	Sumatra	-	-	-	13,840			
Mowna Koa	-	-	Sandwich Is	les	-	-	13,645			
Italitzkoi -	-	_	Altain chain	, Tartar	y	-	10,735			
Lebanon -	-	-	Palestine	-	-	-	9,600			

H	Tigh L	an	ds of the E	Earth.			167
							Feet.
Awatsha	-	_	Kamchatka				9,600
Egmont -	•		New Zealan	đ		-	8,840
Bithynian Olympus	_		Anatolia			_	6,500
Sea View Hill	-	_	New South	Wales	-	-	6,500
							-,
		4	AFRICA.				
Kildmandjaro	-	- .	Jagga	-	-	20	,000 ?
Geesh -	-	-	Abyssinia	-	• ;	- 1	5,000
Peak of Teneriffe	-	-	Canary Isles	3 -	-	-]	12,180
Miltsin -	• `	-	Barbary	• ,,	-	- 1	11,400
Clarence Peak	-	-	Fernando P		-	- 1	10,625
Table Mountain	•	-	Cape of Goo	od Hope	•	•	3,582
Diana's Peak	•	•	St. Helena	•		••	2,692
-		A	MERICA.	•			
Aconcagua		-	Andes		_	. 9	23,910
Sahama -		-	"				22,350
Chimborazo ·	-	-	. "		-		21,415
Nevada di Sorata	•	-	"	- '	. .: .		21,286
Nevada d'Illimani		-	"	-			21,145
Antisana -	-	4	" "		- N		19,136
Cotopaxi (V.)		_	"	-	•		18,867
Mount St. Elias	-	_		erica		- 1	17,863
Popocatepetl (V.)			Mexico	•	-		17,374
Fremont's Peak	-	_	Oregon	-			13,568
Silla de Caraccas	-	-	Venezuela	-			8,633
Blue Mountains		-		-	•		7,278
Mount Washington		-		ns	-		6,650
Itacolumi -	-	_	Brazil	•		-	5,756
Saddle Mountain		_	Massachuset	ts			4,000
	**				,		•
•	ANTA	RC:	ric contin	ENT.			
Mount Erebus and	Mount 7	Cer:	ror -	-	-	- 3	10,000
Mountains in Adelic	Land	-	-	•	•	-	1,500
22. In the armarkable localitaltitudes occupie	ies are	8 6	tated, with	some	of the	era hi	d re- ghest
_	-	•		-			Feet.
Ascent of Gay Luss height ever attain Greatest altitude att	ed by a	ba	lloon	. `	. .	- 9	22,900
on Chimborazo in		- -	M.M. FIUIIIDOI	-	- conpiano		19,400

					Feet.
Highest flight of the condor on th	e And	es -	-	-	21,000
Mannering Pass, in the Himala	ya, cro	essed by	Captain	A.	•
Gerard	-	- '	-	-	18,612
Absolute height of a village in	the 1	Himalaya	visited	by	•
Gerard, perhaps the highest inl	nabited	spot on	the globe	-	13,500
Farm of Antisana, the highest inh	abited	spot on	the Ände	8 -	13,435
Manasarooa Lake in Thibet	-	•	-	-	14,500
Milum Temple, near the source o	f the G	anges	-	-	13,000
Greatest altitude of the peach, as	pricot,	and waln	ut, grow	ing	•
luxuriantly in the Himalaya	• • '	-	-	-	9,000
Thick woods of pines and birch	trees i	in the Hi	malaya,	the	•
latter attaining a large size	-	•	• • ′	-	14,000
Bushes seen in the Himalaya	-	-	-	-	17,000
Absolute elevation of poplars four	nd by (Gerard in	the Hir	na-	•
laya, twelve feet in girth		-	-	-	12,000
Highest point of road across the	Andes	-	-	-	11,499
Elevation of Quito, the highest cir		ne globe	-	-	9,542
Elevation of Santa Fé de Bogota	٠.	٠.	-	-	8,727
Elevation of the city of Mexico	-	-	-	-	9,000
Highest pass in Europe, that of th	he Cerv	in, over	the Penn	ine	•
Alps	-	· •	-	_	11,096
Highest constructed road in Euro	ope. th	e pass of	the Or	ler	•
Špitz	-	•	-	-	9,100
Pass of the Col de Tende over the	e Mari	time Alp	8 -	-	5,887
Pass of Mount Cenis over the Gra	aian A	lps -	-	-	6,773
Pass of the Simplon over the Pen	nine A	.lps	-	-	6,578
Highest inhabited spot in Europe,			St. Berna	ard	8,606
Convent of St. Gothard -	•	•		_	6,900
Mine of Real del Monte in Mexic	:o -	-	-	-	9,120
Highest growth of Peruvian bark	-	-	-	-	9,590
Lake Lucon, in Switzerland	-	-	-	-	6,220
Residence of Bonaparte in St. He	elena, I	ongwood	House	-	2,000
T 1 00			,		* 0.05

LOWLAND PLAINS.

23. Lowland plains are, for the most part, only slightly elevated above the level of the sea. The plains of the old continent present great variety of surface; some are gently waving, others prominently undulating; some again are studded with hills, traversed by valleys, or intersected by ravines. In the American continent, the plains present a more perfectly level and horizontal surface.

24. European plains. — The principal are:—1. The great plain which extends from the shores of the German Ocean to the base of the Ural mountains, comprehending Northern France, Holland and Belgium, Northern Germany, the greater part of Prussia, and the whole of European Russia. The only elevations upon this vast level are the Valdai hills. (See p. 18.) 2. The plain of Hungary is of considerable extent, and abounds with marshy tracts termed Puszta.

25. Asiatic plains. — These are described on pages 77 and 78.; the African plains on page 113., and the plains

of America on pages 132 and 133.

VALLEYS.

26. Valleys are the spaces lying between opposite ranges of mountains or hills; their lowest part is generally the watercourse of some river or torrent which takes its rise in the higher grounds. Valleys occur in almost endless variety: some are broad and open, being formed by the gentle slope of the elevated lands on either side; others are long and narrow, and completely enclosed on all sides by precipitous rocks: others again are basin shaped, or of a circular form, surrounded by a girdle of mountains. Those depressions, resembling large clefts or fissures, which occur in mountainous districts, are arranged into two classes, termed longitudinal and transverse valleys; the former separate the principal parallel ranges, and follow the general direction of the chain; the latter run at various angles with the principal range. Valleys situated among steep mountains are sometimes difficult of access, ingress and egress being obtained only by narrow entrances called ravines, gorges, defiles, or passes.

DESERTS.

27. The term desert, in its original sense, means an uninhabited place, and is therefore applicable to many

regions conspicuously gifted with natural fertility: it is now, however, used in geography to denote sterile tracts, which are occupied by stony or sandy plains, and rendered by the nature of their soil, their want of water, or other causes, unfit for the permanent and settled abode of man. Desert plains, that is, dreary solitudes of stony and sandy wastes, rarely occur in the New Continent, but they occupy an enormous portion of the Old Continent; even some of the best cultivated plains of Europe contain patches of sand of more or less extent. On the western coast of Africa an immense girdle of desert land commences and extends through North Africa. Arabia. Persia, and Central Asia, nearly to the Pacific Ocean. This vast expanse of irretrievable desolation is, for the most part, covered with loose shifting sand, which the wind raises into hillocks, that are constantly changing their position, and threatening to overwhelm the traveller who may venture across these trackless regions. In some places, the surface consists of hills of considerable magnitude, composed of dark and barren limestone rock; in others, beds of gravel appear, furrowed and worn by winter torrents, which descend from the higher regions. The more level tracks frequently consist of plains formed of a clayey soil, thinly covered with a short and coarse grass; these often contain extensive salt lakes and marshes, which supply salt in such abundance as to constitute an article of traffic. The most extensive deserts in the world are mentioned in the description of the continents: they are also indicated upon the physical map.

RIVERS AND LAKES.

28. Rivers are currents of water flowing into open channels through the land. They are formed by brooks and rivulets, whose collected waters they pour into the ocean, or some great inland lake. The whole extent of country drained by a river, that is, the whole of the slopes which contribute their waters to the formation of a river, is called its hydrographical region, district, or basin.

The margin of land separating one basin from another is called the water-parting or water-shed; this, in some cases, is a mere ridge-line like the top of a house-roof, from which the waters diverge and flow down in opposite directions. It sometimes happens that opposite basins are connected by natural canals. The most remarkable instance of this kind is the bifurcation or forking of the Orinoco, which sends a portion of its waters by the Cassiquiare river into the basin of the Amazon. By the bed of a river, is meant the channel which it has excavated for itself; and its course signifies the direction in which it flows. Large rivers having their sources in elevated regions, are generally divided into the upper, middle, and lower courses. The alluvial soil held in suspension by rivers gradually settles down as the currents slacken, and forms portions of land, termed Deltas, so called from their triangular shape, resembling the Greek letter A.

29. At the mouths of the Ganges, Nile, Volga, Rhine, Mississippi, and Orinoco, there are large Deltas, and those of the Brahmaputra, Po, and Rhone, are of considerable extent; there are deltas, also, in the Adige, Brenta, Isonzo,

and Tagliamento.

30. The velocity of a river depends upon its volume of water, the form of its channel, the slope of its bed, and the nature of its windings, which cause the stream to be

retarded by impinging against its banks.

31. The development of a river is its length from its source to its mouth, including all its turnings. A sudden change in the level of the bed of a river produces a rush or fall of water, which, at a moderate inclination, is called a rapid; if it approaches the perpendicular, it is termed a cataract. Falls formed by rivulets, or mountain torrents, receive the name of cascades.

32. Tidal rivers are those which fall into tidal seas, and have the level of their lower course, for some distance, changed daily by the tidal wave. In certain rivers, at spring-tides, the phenomenon of the *bore* is to be seen. This is a wave which, in some places, comes rolling in with the first of the flood, and, rising to the height of from

five to fifteen feet above the level surface of the river, with a foaming crest, rushes onward, threatening destruction to boats, and even to shipping. At the mouth of the Garonne it is called the mascaret. At the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates it is called bar. In the Hooghly, one of the mouths of the Ganges, it is known as the bora, and in the Amazon it bears the name of the rollers, but by the Indians it is called pororoca.

33. The magnitude of rivers depends upon the length of their courses, the area of their basins, the number of their affluents, the rain-producing character of the climate, and their connection with lofty ice-clad mountains or Most of the large rivers have their head table-lands. waters in mountainous regions. The small rills that trickle down from the tops and sides of mountains, generally unite their waters and form streams; the streams, again, roll through the chasms or deep rocky recesses of the mountains, or leap over precipices, forming in their descent every variety of waterfall: rolling on into the valleys, they join and form rivers, enriching and fertilizing the country through which they flow, till they meet the ocean, and there expand into broad estuaries, that become the channels of extensive commerce.

34. Oceanic rivers are those which pour their accumulated waters into the sea. The Pacific, though the largest ocean of the globe, has but few rivers of long courses, falling into its immense basin; the basins of the Atlantic, Arctic, and Indian Oceans, receive most of the continental streams, - some of the mightiest floods discharging their waters into these vast recipients.

35. Continental rivers are those which never reach the ocean, but fall into lakes unconnected with it, or are absorbed and lost in swamps, marshes, or sandy deserts.

RIVER SYSTEMS OF THE GREAT CONTINENTS.

36. Upon referring to the Map, we observe, that though Europe is one of the smallest divisions of the earth, yet it enjoys throughout its whole surface the benefit of a

well-developed river system. Asia sends forth in all directions large river-veins from its mountain regions, but its great central table-land is scantily supplied with water, and Arabia is nearly destitute of this necessary of life.

37. Africa is less favoured with running water than any of the other divisions of the earth; this may be accounted for, partly by the position, elevation, and extent of its great southern table-land. The drainage of America is on a most splendid scale; numerous rivers spread themselves over its western and central regions, and there uniting, roll on with the majesty of seas to the ocean.

38. The course or direction of rivers depends upon the distance the highlands, in which they take their rise, are from the sea, together with the geological nature of the country through which they flow. The direction of the course of rivers is generally at right angles to the mountain chains from which they flow; thus the Indus, Ganges, and Brahmaputra, flow at right angles to the Himalayan chain, and the Siberian rivers in a similar direction from the central regions of Asia; several of the European rivers follow this law, as also the African rivers,—the Nile and Niger. In America, almost all the rivers, with the exception of the Rio Colorado and the Magdalena, flow at right angles to the great mountain chains.

39. All rivers within or adjacent to the Torrid Zone, such as the Ganges, Niger, Orinoco, and Amazon, have their floods at very regular periods; they begin to swell about the 25th of March, and arrive at their full, and begin to decrease about the 25th of August. There is a remarkable contrast between the rivers that roll through the great American plain, and those that traverse the Asiatic northern level, though they have their head-waters about the same distance from the equator. The great tributaries of the Mississippi become gradually unlocked from ice, one by one, in the direction from south to north, and have their sources opened last; were the whole of these tributaries to be opened by the action of the sun at the same time, they would let forth their waters, and

sweep every thing, animal and vegetable, from the surface of the plain. The head-waters of the Siberian rivers are first opened by the solar influence, and being checked by the ice still binding their lower course, burst forth, inundating the plains for several miles on either side of their banks.

40. The river systems of Asia, though on a more splendid scale, somewhat resemble those of Europe; the Ebro may be compared with the Euphrates, the Rhone to the Indus, the Po to the Ganges, and the Grecian streams to those of the Malayan peninsula.

II. LAKES.

- 41. Lakes, generally speaking, are numerous in high latitudes and in certain elevated regions. They may be classed into four distinct kinds: the first class embraces those small lakes which have no outlet, and receive no running water; some of these appear to be the water-filled craters of extinct volcances. The second class consists of those which have an outlet, but receive no running water. The third is the most numerous, and embraces all those which both receive and discharge streams, such as Lake Baikal, and the Canadian lakes, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario. The fourth class is most singular; it comprises all those lakes which receive streams, but have no visible outlet.
- 42. The water of lakes is generally fresh, and, especially in those which occur in hilly regions, clear and sweet, so as to be capable of supplying the domestic wants of man. But those which belong to the fourth class form a striking exception, as the water of such is almost always salt, in some cases to a degree of intensity which greatly exceeds that of the ocean. The Dead Sea, in Palestine, is among the most striking examples of this, the saline particles contained in its water amounting to nearly 25 in every hundred; while the proportion of salt in sea-water does not in general exceed 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of its weight.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF THE GREAT CONTINENTS.

Rivers.	Locality.	Rise.	Discharge.	Length.
Amazon	Brazil	Andes	Atlantic	3600
Amour	Mongolia	Khan Ola Mountains	Sea of Okotsk	27(0
Brahma-	Thibet	Himalaya Mountains	Bay of Bengal	2000
pootra				
Bravo del Norte	Mexico	Sierra Verde	Gulf of Mexico	1800
Colorado	N. America	Unknown	Gulf of California	700
Columbia	N. America	Rocky Mountains	Pacific Ocean	1300
Congo	Africa	Lake Aquilunda	Atlantic Ocean	1400
Danube	Germany	Black Forest	Black Sea	1630
Dnieper	Russia	Height of Smolensk	Black Sea	1200
Dniester	Russia	Carpathian Mountains	Black Sea	480
Don	Russia	Lake Ivanhof	Sea of Azof	1100
Douro	Spain and Portugal	Mountains of Sovia	Atlantic Ocean	455
Dwina	Russia	Heights of Vologda	White Sea	800
Ebro	Spain	Mountains of Asturias	Mediterranean	410
El Asi, the ancient	Syria	East side of Anti-Libanus	Mediterranean	225
Orontes	Germany	Elb-brunnen, in Bohemia	German Ocean	770
Elbe	Asiatic	Mountains of Armenia	Persian Gulf	1780
Euphrates	Turkey	Mountains of Armenia	Tersian Gun	1700
Forth	Scotland	East side of Ben Lomond	German Ocean	110
Gambia	Senegambia	Plateau of Fouta Toro	Atlantic Ocean	4000
	Hindostan	Bed of snow above Gan-	Bay of Bengal	1500
Ganges	muuoscan	goutri, in the Himalaya	Day of Deligar	1000
Garonne	France	Valley of Aran, in Spain	Bay of Biscay	400
Glomman	Norway	Mountains south-east of Trondheim	Baltic Sea	400
Codeman	Hindostan	Western Ghauts	Bay of Bengal	850
Godavery	Spain	Mountains on the frontiers	Gulf of Cadiz	280
Guadalquiver	Spann	of Murcia and Granada	Guil Of Caulz	200
Guadiana	Spain	Pools of Ruideva in La Mancha	Gulf of Cadiz	460
Hoang-Ho	China	Koulkoun Mountains	Yellow Sea	2300
Hudson	U. States	Marsh near Lake Cham-	Bay of New York	325
Humber	England	plain Moorlands of Staffordshire	German Ocean	230
(Trent	Displana	110011111111111111111111111111111111111	Gorman Groun	
Branch)		1	i	1
Indus	Hindostan	Little Thibet, north of the Himalaya Mountains	Arabian Sea	1800
Irawady	Birman Empire	Mountains east of Assam	Bay of Bengal	1200
Jaxartes, or Sihoun	Turkestan	Country of the Highland Kirghiz	Sea of Aral	1200
James River	U. States	Alleghany Mountains	Chesapeake Bay	500
Jordan	Palestine	Mount Hermon	Dead Sea	100
Jumnah	Hindostan	Himalaya Mountains	Ganges	1600
Kizil-irmah.	Asia Minor	Frontiers of Sisas	Black Sea	700
the ancient				
Krishna, or Kistna	Hindostan	Western Ghauts	Bay of Bengal	650

Rivers.	Locality.	Rise.	Discharge.	Length
Kodos, or Sarahat, the ancient Hermus	Asia Minor	Murad-tagh	Gulf of Smyrna	190
Kouban	Russia, Asia	Walley near Mount El- burz	Black Sea	480
Lawrence, St.	Canada	River St. Louis, east of Lake Superior	Atlantic Ocean	2000
Lena Loire	Siberia France	Heights of Irkutsk Mount Gerbier, in the	Arctic Ocean Bay of Biscay	2800 620
Mackenzie	N. America	Cevennes River Athabasca, in the	Arctic Ocean	2440
Mæander	Asia Minor	Rocky Mountains West side of Central Plateau	Archipelage	180
Magdalena May-kuang	S. America Birman Empire	Andes Thibet	Caribbean Sea Chinese Sea	1050 1700
Meinam	Birman Empire	Yunnaw	Gulf of Siam	850
Meuse, or Maas	Holland	Limburg	German Ocean	520
Mississippi Missouri Murray Niger Nile	N. America N. America Australasia Soudan Egypt and	Lake Itaska Rocky Mountains Australian Alps Base of Mount Loma Blue Nile, in the Plateau	Gulf of Mexico Gulf of Mexico Encounter Bay Gulf of Guinea Mediterranean	2400 4200 3000 3000 3600
Орі	Nubia Siberia	of Abyssinia: source of the White Nile unknown Altain Mountains	Arctic Ocean	2600
Oder Orange, or Gareep	Germany South Africa	Mountains of Moravia Mountains N.W. of Port Natal	Baltic Sea Atlantic Ocean	550 1050
Orinoco	S. America	Mountains of Spanish Guiana	Atlantic Ocean	1550
Oxus, or lihoun	Turkestan	Siri-kol, a lake in Khun- duz	Sea of Aral	1300
Plata (Para- guay branch)	S. America	South-west of Brazil	Atlantic Ocean	2200
Po Potomac	Italy U. States	Crottian Alps Great Back-bone Moun- tain	Adriatic Sea Chesapeake Bay	315 400
Rhine Rhone	Germany France	Rhetian Alps Glacier of Mount Furca	German Ocean Mediterranean	760 480
Seine Senegal	France Africa	Plateau of Langres Heights near Teembo	British Channel Atlantic Ocean	1140 1140
Severn Shannon	England Ireland	East side of Plinlimmon Loch Allen	Bristol Channel Atlantic Ocean	240 190
Susquehanah	U. States	Lake to the south of On-	Chesapeake Bay	500
Tagus	Spain and Portugal	Mountains of New Castile	Atlantic Ocean	520
Terek Thames	Russian Asia England	Foot of Mount Kasibec Cotswold Hills	Caspian Sea German Ocean	300 240
Tiber	Italy	East border of Tuscany	Mediterranean	210 1146
Tigris Vistula	Turkey, Asia Poland	Mountains of Armenia Austrian Silesia	Persian Gulf Baltic Sea	650
Vistula Volga	Russia	Lake in the Forest of Volhonsky	Caspian Sea	2300
Yang-tse- kiang	China	Thibet	Chinese Sea	3300

PRINCIPAL LAKES,

WITH THE AREA IN ENGLISH SQUARE MILES.

				Sq. Miles.					Sq Miles.
Winderme	re	-	-	10	Koko-nor	-	-	-	1,500
Lomond	-	-	-	43	Baikal	-	-	-	14,800
Neagh	-	-	•	156	Tong-ting		-	-	2,000
Geneva	-	-	-	240	Dembea	-	-	-	1,400
Constance	-	-	-	228	Chad	-	-	-	15,000
Balaton	-	-	-	250	Dibbie ·	-	-	-	650
Wener	-	-	_	2,136	Great Bear	· L.	-	-	10,000
Wetter	-	-	-	840	Great Slav	e L.	-	_	12,000
Ladoga	-	-	_	6,330	Athabasca	_	-	-	3,000
Onega.	-	-	-	3,280	Winnipeg	-	-	-	9,000
Dead Sea	_	_	-	360	Superior	_	_	_	43,000
Urumiyeh	-	-	-	1,800	Michigan	_	-	-	13,500
Caspian Se		_	_	130,000	Huron	-	-	_	16,500
Aral -	-	_	-	26,000	Erie -	-	_	_	11,000
Zurrah	-	_	_	1.100	Ontario	_	_		12,600
Balkash	_	_	_	7,000	Nicaragua	_	_ ,	_	3,260
Zaisan	_	_	_	1,000	Maracaybo		_	_	5,000
Tengri-nor	ii.		-	1,800	Titicaca	_	_	_	3,800
				-,500					2,000

THE OCEAN.

43. That vast body of water, termed the *Ocean*, which surrounds the dry land and penetrates its coast, covers nearly three-fourths of the surface of the globe. The bed of the ocean, like the surface of the land, is diversified by hills, mountains, valleys, and plains.

44. The chief chemical and physical peculiarities of its waters are their colour, saltness, temperature, depth, and

level, with their waves, tides, and currents.

45. The colour of the sea is generally of a deep bluish green, which becomes clearer and brighter towards the coasts. The colour in some parts depends upon local causes; thus a purple tint is said to pervade the waters in the eastern part of the Mediterranean sea. In the Gulf of Guinea the sea is white, and around the Maldives it is black. Between China and Japan it is yellowish; and west of the Canaries and Azores it is green. Off California, the Vermilion Sea is so named from the colour

it often assumes. At the mouth of the La Plata, the sea is of a reddish tinge; and of a similar colour in the Red Sea, whence its name. Changes of colour are sometimes caused by the nature of the soil, or by the infusion of certain earthy substances in the water. Green and yellow shades frequently proceed from the existence of marine vegetation at or near the surface.

SALTNESS OF THE SEA.

46. Sea-water is salt; and, except the Caspian and some other inland seas, whose waters are brackish, the waters of lakes and rivers are mild, sweet, and fit for

human purposes.

(1.) Salt is one of the elementary principles in nature, and is mixed, in greater or less quantities with all other substances. All rivers that run into the sea carry some salt with them; but no rivers run out of the sea, nor is any water taken out of it, except by exhalation and evaporation; and no salt ascends in either of these ways: it has consequently been inferred, without supposing great beds of salt originally deposited in the bottom of the sea, that the immense number of rivers which run into it carry with them a sufficient quantity of salt to give to the whole body of waters of the deep that saltness which, with their motions and currents, preserves them from putrefaction.

(2.) It is obvious that no salt ascends from the sea, because rain water, which falls from the clouds, is the

sweetest, purest, and lightest of all waters.

(3.) Hence many contrivances have been adopted for distilling sea-water at sea for ordinary use on ship-board; and hence the pits or pans for making salt on many coasts of the sea.

47. Temperature. — Water being a slow conductor of heat, absorbs and gives it out less freely than the atmosphere; its temperature therefore is more uniform and is not subject to those rapid changes which take place in the atmosphere.

48. Very little is known concerning the temperature

of the ocean at great depths, but from the few experiments that have been made, it has been ascertained to decrease with the depth in temperate zones, and to increase with the depth in high latitudes.

49. The temperature of the ocean in low latitudes is considerably modified by the ice drifted by the polar

currents from the Arctic and Antarctic Seas.

50. Depth. — No certain conclusions have been formed with respect to the depth of the ocean; all we know is that it varies from a few feet to several miles. In the North Sea, Lord Mulgrave sounded to the depth of 4680 feet without reaching bottom. Off the coast of Greenland, Captain Scoresby sounded with a line of 7200 feet with the same result. And 300 miles to the east of Cape Farewell, in Greenland, Captain Parry found no bottom with a line of 6120 feet.

51. The greatest depth ever sounded was that by Captain Sir James Ross, in 15° 3′ S. lat. and 23° 14′ W. long., where a line of 27,600 feet (nearly 5¼ miles) was let down without finding bottom, — a depth equal in height to some of the most elevated peaks of the Himalaya.

52. Level. — The ocean is presumed to have everywhere an uniform surface, which is called the level of the sea: some of its branches form an exception to this rule, their waters being sometimes raised by prevailing winds and currents.

WAVES.

53. Waves are produced by any cause which disturbs the equilibrium of the particles of a fluid. The ocean exhibits two kinds of waves; one called the sea-wave, which is produced by the friction of the wind; the other, termed the tide-wave, is raised by the attractive influences of the sun and moon. The height of the former in open seas depends upon the force of the wind, and the angle at which it impinges upon the surface of the water, but in confined places the heights and forms of waves are affected by the resistance of the sea-bottom and the character of the shores. The elevation of the tide-wave

depends upon the relative positions of the sun and moon

with respect to the earth.

54. Besides the agitation by the waves, the ocean is subject to an undulation called the *ground-swell*, which continues to heave the bosom of the mighty deep long after it has been roused by the distant storm or the hurricane.

TIDES.

55. Those regular motions of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours, are called the Tides.

(1.) When the sea, in its flow, has risen for about six hours, it remains, as it were, suspended and in equilibrio for some minutes; and at that time it is called high water.

(2.) When, in its ebb, the sea has fallen for about six hours, it remains in like manner, as it were, suspended and in equilibrio; and at that time it is called *low water*.

56. The tides are occasioned chiefly by the attraction of the moon, by which the water is raised upwards in those parts of the sea to which that luminary is opposite. (See plate.)

(1.) The tides are greatest at the new and full moons, and are called *spring tides*; they are least at the first and third or last quadratures, and are called *neap tides*: the highest tides are near the times of the equipages.

highest tides are near the times of the equinoxes.

(2.) When the moon is in the northern hemisphere, and in the meridian above the horizon, it produces a greater tide than when it is in the meridian below it; and, when in the southern hemisphere, the reverse is the case.

(3.) For the same reason, when the moon is in the southern signs, the greatest tides on the other side of the equator will be when it is below our horizon; and when

it is above it, the tides will be least.

57. Progress of the tide-wave.—In order that the phenomena of the tides at different places may be readily compared together, charts of co-tidal lines have been constructed, on which the time of high water at certain places may be readily seen. The explanation of such

a chart is this: suppose the sun and moon to be on the same meridian, which is the case at new or full moon. spring-tide will then be produced. Now let us suppose that the coincidence of the actions of these luminaries in conjunction or opposition takes place at 12 o'clock (say on Monday), and at that instant the waters of the Pacific to the east of Van Dieman's Land, say about the meridian of 155° E. long., are sweeping under the moon; an initial impulse will then be communicated to the mass of waters and a wave raised, which following the motion of the moon, will proceed westward and bring high water on the coast of Van Dieman's Land at mid-The wave now travels northward and westward. and is off the Peninsula of Hindoostan at noon on Tuesday, and at 1 o'clock is off the Cape of Good Hope. enters the Atlantic, and, moving continuously northward, brings high water successively to all the ports on the western shores of Africa, and eastern shores of America. reaching Cape Blanco on the west of Africa, and Newfoundland on the American continent, at midnight of Tuesday. Then turning eastward, it reaches the coast of France and the mouth of the channel about 4 o'clock the next morning. Proceeding along the western shores of Ireland and Scotland, it passes round the north of Scotland bringing high water to Aberdeen at noon on Wednesday. From this point it proceeds slowly, taking 12 hours to reach the mouth of the Thames, which it does at midnight of Wednesday.

CURRENTS.

58. The causes which disturb the equilibrium of the ocean, producing in it streams of various extent, magnitude, and velocity, are, the influence of tides and of winds,—the expansion and contraction of water by heat and by cold,—the evaporating power of the sun,—and the revolution of the earth about its axis.

59. Another cause of oceanic currents is the evaporation by solar heat: large quantities of water raised from one

tract of the ocean, are carried to some other, where the vapour is condensed and falls in the form of rain; this, in flowing back to restore equilibrium, causes sensible currents.

- 60. In consequence of some one or all of these forces. the waters of the ocean are put in motion, and two great currents perpetually set from each pole towards the equa-The existence of these is proved by masses of ice floating from the frigid to the temperate regions. Icebergs drifted from the North Pole have been met with at the Azores, and from the South Pole they have come even to the Cape of Good Hope. When these currents set out from the poles, they move directly towards the equator. but are gradually deflected in moving from regions where the rotatory motion of the earth's surface is very slight when compared with that at the equator, where it revolves at the rate of upwards of 1000 miles an hour: here the waters cannot immediately acquire the rapid motion with which the solid parts of the earth revolve; hence, the whole surface of the ocean for about 30 degrees on each side of the equator is left behind; or, in other words, it has a general movement from east to west, which produces all the effect of a current in that direction, and this effect is further increased by the constant blowing of the Trade-winds.
- 61. This great oceanic current originates in the immense expanse of the Antarctic Ocean (see Map): first moving in a north-easterly direction, it reaches the American shore; a small branch rounds Cape Horn, but the great stream flows along the American coast until it arrives off the shores of Peru; it then turns towards the west, and in a belt 3,500 miles broad, called the great Equatorial Current, commences within the limits of the tropics its grand tour of the Pacific Ocean. On reaching the south-eastern shores of Asia, the Indian Archipelago, and Australia, it is broken into numerous smaller streams, but a large volume of water forces its way through the islands, and joins the great equatorial current of the Indian Ocean; as this stream approaches the eastern

shores of Africa, it is again divided by the island of Madagascar; one branch flows round the north of that island, sweeps through the Mozambique channel, where having dashed against the shores of Africa it is joined by the other branch, then doubling the Cape, outside of the Agulhas Bank, it enters the bed of the Atlantic Ocean. Proceeding northward along the western shores of Africa, it mingles with the Great Atlantic equatorial current, which divides into two great branches off Cape St. Roque, One branch sets along the coast of South America, and before reaching the estuary of the La Plata, it is deflected towards the east, and under the name of the South Connecting Current, makes the circuit of the South Atlantic Ocean, entering the Indian Ocean 200

miles to the south of the Cape of Good Hope.

62. The principal branch of the equatorial current of the Atlantic rushes along the coasts of Brazil, Guayana, and Columbia, into the Caribbean Sea; it enters the Gulf of Mexico between the western extremity of the island of Cuba and the peninsula of Yucatan, here it follows the bendings of the Mexican coast from Vera Cruz to the Rio del Norte, and thence to the mouths of the Mississippi. The temperature of the Gulf of Mexico is at least 7° higher than that of the Atlantic under the same parallel From this reservoir or cauldron of warm water, the most powerful current known, - the Gulf Stream, - pours forth at the rate of five miles an hour through the Strait of Florida into the Atlantic Ocean. Flowing in a northeasterly direction, it sweeps along the whole coast of America, and skirts the bank of Newfoundland, where it still retains a temperature of 8° above that of the sur-Then bending to the east, it crosses the rounding sea. Atlantic, and after flowing nearly 3000 geographical miles, reaches the Azores in about 78 days. It then turns towards the Strait of Gibraltar, the isle of Madeira, and the group of the Canaries, till on reaching the parallel of Cape Blanco, it completes the round by mingling with the grand westerly current of the tropics, about the parallel of 21° north latitude. Thus we see that the R 2

waters of the Atlantic between the parallels of 11° and 43° are kept in a perpetual whirlpool, by which a single particle of water describes a great circuit of about 3,800 leagues in the space of two years and ten months. Humboldt says, that "we can estimate from our present knowledge of the swiftness of currents, that this circuit of 3,800 leagues is not terminated in less than two years and ten months."

63. The principal oceanic currents are laid down upon the physical map.

METEOROLOGICAL PHENOMENA.

THE ATMOSPHERE.

64. The atmosphere is that thin fluid which surrounds the earth on every side, and accompanies it in its diurnal revolution about its axis and its annual motion round the sun. Being lighter than either land or water, it rises above them, but it is retained by the power of gravity, and held close to the earth's surface for the use of man and the whole animate and inanimate creation.

65. The atmosphere is composed principally of two different sorts of gases, termed oxygen and nitrogen. Aqueous vapour is also present in it, and about 10 parts of carbonic acid gas in every 10,000 of atmospheric air. It is an ascertained fact, that while animals extract from the atmosphere the principle called oxygen and return to it carbonic acid, plants do exactly the opposite; so wonderful is the provision for keeping up the purity of this upper and all-embracing ocean. All animal and vegetable life is dependent upon the atmosphere, and man is equally dependent upon it. It supplies to the lungs the oxygen which purifies the blood, and is the food of common fire, and necessary to the support of flame. diffuses solar light and heat, and is the vehicle of smell and of sound: the stillness of death would reign throughout universal nature were it not for the atmosphere. Its relative proportions are 21 parts of oxygen, and 79 of nitrogen, and these proportions are preserved throughout the globe we inhabit; a small proportion of carbonic acid also enters into its composition, and there is always present in it more or less aqueous vapour, which descends in the form of rain and dew to fructify and nourish the conth

- 66. The height of the atmosphere above the surface of the earth we have no means of accurately ascertaining, but we know that at the height of about 45 miles it ceases to refract the rays of light. It is also known to exert a pressure of about 15 pounds upon every square inch of the earth's surface. When we consider the enormous weight of this medium, which contains the elements of life and destruction, and enfolds the earth as a mantle, we are astounded at its immensity: it is expressed by the sum of five quadrillions, two hundred and eighty-seven trillions, three hundred and fifty billions of tons.
- 67. This vast aërial ocean, at the bottom of which we live, is elastic, invisible, transparent, subtile, expansive, and weighty. It is owing to some of these properties that currents are produced in it, known by the name of winds, and which we have now to consider.

OF THE WINDS.

68. The wind is air put in motion, either gently or violently; and this is occasioned chiefly by solar heat.

69. Every degree of heat expands air a 480th part; and then the heated air rises, because it is lighter, since there is less air in an equal space when it is warm than when it is cold. The motion of cooler air to supply its place forms the current which we call wind.

70. The sun, while vertical at any place, heats and expands the air; and then, as the earth turns under the sun from west to east, the sun appears to move westward, so that a regular east wind follows the sun, called the trade wind.

71. This regular wind is, however, varied by currents

from the east and south-east, and these again are varied by land, mountains, changes of seasons, rain, snow, &c.

72. Winds may be divided into constant, or those which always blow in the same direction; periodical, or those which blow half a year in one direction, and half a year in the contrary direction, which last are called monsoons;

and variable, which are subject to no rules.

73. Constant or trade winds. — The trade wind at the equator blows constantly from the east. From the equator to the northern tropic, or even as far as the parallel 25° or 30° it declines towards the north-east, and the more so the further we recede from the equator. From the equator to the southern tropic, or to the parallel 25° or 30°, it has a south-east direction. The line, however, that separates the opposite trade winds is not precisely the equator, but the second or third parallel north. To a certain extent. also, they follow the course of the sun, reaching a little further into the southern hemisphere, and contracting their limits in the north, when the sun is on the south side of the equator, and making a reverse change when he declines to the north. In a zone of variable breadth in the middle of this tract, calms and rains prevail, caused probably by the mingling and ascending of the opposite aërial currents. The phenomenon of the trade winds may be thus explained. The air towards the poles being denser than that at the equator, will continually rush towards the equator; but as the velocity of the different parts of the earth's surface, from its rotation, increases as we approach the equator, the air which is rushing from the north will not continue upon the same meridian, but it will be left behind; that is, in respect to the earth's surface, it will have a motion from the east; and these two motions combined produce a north-east wind on the north side of the equator. And in like manner there must be a south-east wind on the south side. which is thus continually moving from the poles to the equator, being rarified when it comes there, ascends to the top of the atmosphere, and then returns back to the poles. 74. Periodical winds or monsoons. - Such would pro-

bably be the regular course of the trade winds, supposing the parts between and near the tropics were open sea. But high lands change or interrupt their regular course. For instance, in the Indian Ocean, the trade wind is curiously modified by the lands which surround it on the north, east, and west. There, the southern trade wind blows regularly, as it ought to do, from the east and south-east, from 10° S. latitude to the tropic; but in the space from 10° S. latitude to the equator, northwest winds blow during our winter (from October to April), and south-east in the other six months, while in the whole space north of the equator, south-west winds blow during summer and north-east during winter. These winds are called monsoons. It was observed above that the regular trade wind blows in the Indian Ocean from 10° S. latitude to the tropic; but there is an exception to this in all that part of the Indian Ocean which lies between Madagascar and Cape Comorin; for there, between the months of April and October, the wind blows from the south-west, and in the contrary direction from October to April. But of both the constant and periodical winds, it may be observed that they blow only at sea; at land the wind is always variable.

75. Variable winds.—In the temperate zones, the direction of the winds is by no means so regular as between the tropics. In the north temperate zone, however, they blow most frequently from the south-west; in the south temperate zone from the north-west; but changing frequently to all points of the compass, and, in the north temperate zone, blowing, particularly during the spring,

from the north-east.

76. The land and sea breezes are periodical winds that blow from the land, from night till about mid-day; and from the sea from about noon to midnight, owing to the increased heat of the land.

77. Though the general tendency of the winds is from a colder to a hotter region, yet beyond the latitude of 30° they are more or less variable; as we perceive in Britain and Europe.

- 78. Winds, passing for a considerable time over highly heated land, become sometimes so scorching and suffocating, as to be attended with dreadful effects. These winds, under the name of the Simoom, are often felt in the Desert of Arabia and the interior of Africa.
- 79. There are four principal winds, the north, west, south, and east, which receive their names from the four points of the horizon, and which are called also the cardinal points.

80. The north wind in our hemisphere blows from the

northern frigid zone, and is always the coldest.

81. The south wind, to Europeans, &c., is the warmest, particularly during the summer months, because it comes from the torrid zone, where the sun is vertical.

82. The east wind is the driest, because, in coming to us, it crosses the continent of Asia, which is but little,

watered by seas or rivers.

83. The west wind is usually accompanied with rain, because in its passage over the great Atlantic Ocean it takes up great quantities of vapours, which the mountains and hills precipitate as rain.

84. Wind travels at the rate of fifty or sixty miles an hour, in a great storm; in a common brisk wind, the rate is about fifteen miles an hour; and gentle zephyrs

move not even one or two miles.

HURRICANES,

85. The terms Hurricane, Whirlwind, Waterspout, Landspout, Sand-pillar, Tornado, White squall, Pampero, &c., have been applied to rotatory movements of the atmosphere in different parts of the world.

86. Hurricanes, or Cyclones, are revolving storms which occur in the West Indies and in the Indian Ocean. Of a similar kind are the Typhoons in the Chinese Seas. These atmospheric currents are in the nature of vortices or circulating movements participated in by masses of air from 50 to 500 miles in diameter, revolving the more rapidly the nearer the centre, up to a certain distance, or radius, within which there is a calm.

MOISTURE OF THE ATMOSPHERE.

87. Evaporation from the earth's surface is continually going on. It is caused chiefly by the solar action on the surface of the sea, of rivers, of lakes, and moist ground; the invisible vapour, rising into the air, mixes with it, until it is condensed and assumes the form of mist, fog, or clouds, or falls in the shape of rain, snow, or hail.

88. Dew-point.—If a mass of air be gradually cooled, it will at last descend to a degree of temperature at which it becomes saturated by the aqueous vapour contained in it. The degree of temperature indicated by the thermometer when dew begins to be deposited, is called the dew-point, and this point varies with the degree of humidity of the atmosphere.

DEW AND WHITE FROST.

89. When aqueous vapour descends during the night, in the form of drops spread on the surface of plants and other bodies, it obtains the name of dew; but if the temperature is very low it appears in the state of white-frost.

FOGS.

- 90. Fogs are masses of aqueous vapour, more or less dense, which rest immediately on the surface of the earth, or cling to the sides of mountains. When they remain suspended at a certain height in the atmosphere, they are called clouds.
- 91. When fog becomes visible any where, it is because the air is saturated with moisture. In countries where the soil is moist and hot and the air moist and cold, thick and frequent fogs may be expected. This is the case in England, the coasts of which are washed by a sea at an elevated temperature. The same is the case with the

seas which lie around Newfoundland, where the gulf stream, which flows from the south, has a higher temperature than the air. In London, fogs have sometimes an extraordinary density and dark colour; this probably is owing to the great admixture of smoke with the aqueous vapour. Fogs cannot possibly form when the air is very dry; for this reason, they are never observed in deserts. In the interior of large continents, and particularly in the interior of Asia and Africa, they only form in the neighbourhood of rivers and lakes.

CLOUDS.

92. Clouds are masses of condensed vapour suspended in the atmosphere; they are of the greatest importance to the earth, and they are the grand reservoir of the rains which descend and refresh the ground, and of the snows which clothe and keep it warm in winter. They also serve as a screen to protect the earth from the intense rays of the sun, and as a vehicle for the electric fluid.

93. The height of clouds varies with the seasons, being much greater in summer than in winter. In certain countries they regularly form and disperse at particular seasons, and are often the precursors of wind, rain or

storms.

RAIN.

94. Rain is water, which, originally taken up into the atmosphere in the state of vapour, is returned to the earth in the form of liquid drops. It is very unequally distributed over the regions of the globe; generally speaking, it is most abundant in the neighbourhood of the equator where evaporation is going on most rapidly, and it gradually decreases in quantity, as we recede from the equator towards the poles.

95. "Between the tropics the rains follow the sun: when he is north of the equator, the rains prevail in the northern tropic; and when he is south of that line, in the southern; hence, one half of the year is extremely wet and the other

half extremely dry; the change taking place near the equinoxes. Nevertheless, in countries situate between the fifth and tenth parallels of latitude, north and south, there are two rainy seasons and two dry; one occurs when the sun passes the zenith in his progress to the nearest tropic, and the other at his return, but in the latter the rains are less violent and of shorter duration. Although the quantity of water which falls between the tropics in a month is greater than that of a whole year in Europe, yet the number of rainy days increases with the latitude, so that there are fewest where the quantity is greatest. Neither does it fall continually during the rainy season between the tropics, for the sky is generally clear at sunrise, it becomes cloudy at ten in the morning, at noon the rain begins to fall, and, after pouring for four or five hours, the clouds vanish at sunset, and not a drop falls in the night, so that a day of uninterrupted rain is very rare." -" At sea, within the region of the trade-winds, it seldom rains, but in the narrow zone between them, known as the variables, in both the great oceans, it rains almost continually, attended by violent thunder-storms.

96. "Throughout the whole region where the monsoons prevail, it is not the sun directly, but the winds, that regulate the periodical rains."—"In these countries, the western coasts are watered during the south-west monsoon, which prevails from April to October; and the eastern coasts are watered during the north-east monsoon, which blows from October to April."—Mrs. So-

merville.

97. A larger amount of rain falls in countries in the vicinity of the sea, than in those situated inland, and more rain is known to fall in mountainous than in level districts: the cause of this is, that the vapour coming in contact with the cold surface of the summits of the mountains is condensed, and falls in the form of rain.

98. During the wet season within the tropics, the rains are not continual, but pour down in floods for several days together, or for several hours in a day.

99. On the western coast of Africa, at Sierra Leone,

the wet season is from June to October, and the dry season from September to June. About the latter end of June the rains increase to torrents, and are accompanied with fatal storms of thunder and lightning.

100. On the Gold Coast, the rainy seasons continue from April to October; and from the end of March to the middle of September in the kingdom of Congo. The

greatest quantity of rain falls about noon.

101. On the eastern coast, the seasons are the reverse of those on the western coast. Thus, in Sofala, Mosambique, and Zanguebar, the rainy season, or winter, is from September to February.

102. It never rains in Egypt, and rains are unknown in those countries; yet, in 1817, a part of Grand Cairo was

washed away by a water-spout.

103. Though the climate of Abyssinia is hot, it is tempered by the mountainous nature of the country, which from April to September causes heavy rains to fall. These, with others in countries still further south, occasion the overflowing of the Nile.

104. In Bengal, the hot or dry season begins with March, and lasts till the end of May; and violent thunder and storms occasionally interrupt the intense heat. The rainy season continues from June to September: the last three months of the year are generally pleasant; but in January and February excessive fogs prevail.

Towards the end of July, all the lower parts of Bengal are overflowed by the Ganges, forming an inundation of more than 100 miles in extent, nothing appearing but villages and trees, save here and there an elevated spot resembling an island.

105. On the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel opposite seasons are produced by the chains of the mountains, which run from north to south along the western side of the peninsula of India, and precipitate the great masses of clouds which they intercept. On the coast of Coromandel, the rainy season begins with the north-east monsoon, or from October to April; and on the Malabar coast with the south-west monsoon, or from May to September.

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106. In the month of September the navigation on the Malabar coast is open, and ships begin to sail from thence till May to all parts of the world: on the Coromandel shore the navigation is uninterrupted from April to October.

107. The Andes divide Peru and Chili into two different climates; for while it is summer in the mountainous parts,

it is winter in the valleys.

108. Winter begins on the mountains in December; in the valleys this is the first summer month; and it is said that a journey of four hours brings the traveller from one season to another.

109. The confined coasts on the west of the Andes are in general dry, whilst the extensive countries on the east of that chain are deluged with torrents of rain, from the trade winds blowing over the Atlantic from the east.

110. Travellers, on the Andes, have frequently enjoyed a delightful serenity on these elevated regions, at the same time that they have heard the frightful noise of tempests discharging themselves on the low country; they have seen lightnings issue from the clouds, and have heard the thunder roll far beneath their feet.

111. Rain is seldom or never seen at Lima; but the

valleys are watered with a strong dew.

112. In Brazil, the wet season usually begins in March or April, and ends in August, when spring, or rather summer, commences.

113. The nights are very cold throughout the whole year; and those of summer more so than those in winter.

114. In Jamaica, the rainy season commences in May, and July is always very wet. In the beginning of August, the weather is uncommonly close. Hurricanes are frequent in September and October.

115. In Guatimala, it rains from the beginning of May to the beginning of November; the other six months of

the year are hot and dry.

116. The mean annual quantity of rain which has been ascertained to fall at several places in various parts of the

world is stated in the following Table, from which it will be seen that the quantity becomes in general less with the increase of the latitude, though with some exceptions, which are owing to local circumstances.

Pla	Latitude North.	Inches of Rain.				
Grenada		_			° ′ 12 0	126
	-	-	-	- 1		1
Kingston (Jamaica)	-	-	-	- 1	18 0	83
Calcutta	-	-	-	-	22 39	81
Rome	-	-	-	-	41 53	39
·Paris	-	-	-	- 1	48 49	21
Plymouth	-	-	-	- 1	50 23	37
London	•	-	-	-	51 30	24
Liverpool	-		-	- 1	53 25	34
Kendal	-	_	-	- 1	54 20	56
Glasgow	-	-	-	- 1	55 51	21
Edinburgh -	-	-	_	- 1	55 57	24
Upsal	_	-	-	- 1	59 52	16
Petersburg -	-	-	-	-	60 O	16

117. The quantity of rain is indicated by intensity of shading upon the small Rain Map.

Relative	Quantity	of	Rain	in	Europe.
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Places.	Mean number of Rainy days per annum.	Quantity of Rain in Inches
England, West Coast	152	37.5
England, East Coast	152	25.5
Coast of France and Holland .	152	26.75
Interior of ditto	147	25.5
Central Germany	141	21.25
Buda	112	18
Petersburg	90	17

And if we express the annual quantity of rain by 100, we shall find the following number for that which falls in each season:—

Proportional Quantities of Rain in Europe in the different Seasons.

Seasons.		Interior of England.		East of France.	Germany.	Peters- burg.
Winter	26·4	23·0	23·4	19·5	18·2	13.6
Spring	19·7	20·5	18·3	23·4	21·6	19.4
Summer	23·0	26·0	25·1	29·4	37·1	36.5
Autumn	30·9	30·4	33·3	27·3	23·2	30.5

OF THE AURORA BOREALIS.

118. In describing the two seasons of the year in the frigid zone (north), we had occasion to mention the benefit derived from the *Aurora Borealis*.

119. That shining light which is often seen by night in the heavens, and which is sometimes called the northern lights, or streamers, is the Aurora Borealis, which, till the month of March, 1716, was not much observed in England.

120. The appearance of the Aurora Borealis so exactly resembles the effects of artificial electricity, that there is every reason to believe that their causes are identical. When electricity passes through rarefied air, it exhibits a diffused luminous stream, which has all the characteristic appearances of the Aurora, and hence it is highly pro bable that this natural phenomenon is occasioned by the passage of electricity through the upper regions of the atmosphere. The influence of the Aurora upon the magnetic needle is now an ascertained fact: the needle is disturbed immediately before and during the appearance of the Aurora. The connection between the Aurora and magnetism is further evident from the fact, that the beams or coruscations issuing from a point in the horizon, west or north, are frequently observed to run in the magnetic meridian. At the same time a luminous arch is occasionally seen stretching across the heavens, and crossing the magnetic meridian at right angles. This species of light usually appears in streams, ascending toward the zenith

from a dusky line, a few degrees above the horizon. Sometimes it assumes a wavy appearance, as in America, in March, 1782, when it overspread the whole hemisphere; sometimes it appears in detached places; at other times it almost covers the hemisphere. As the streams of light have a tremulous motion, they are called, in the Shetland Isles, merry dancers. They assume all shapes, and a variety of colours, from a pale red or vellow, to a deep red or blood colour, and, in the northern latitudes, serve to illuminate the earth and cheer the gloom of long winter This light is sometimes near the earth. also said to have been seen between the spectator and a distant mountain. The Aurora Borealis is said to be frequently accompanied by sound, which is variously described as a hissing, a murmuring, a rumbling, and a crackling sound. This has been so positively asserted by different observers, that no doubt can be entertained of the fact.

SOLAR DISTRIBUTION OF TEMPERATURE ON THE EARTH'S SURFACE.

121. The temperature of the countries which we have studied is not the same in all: some are extremely hot, others are intensely cold.

122. The hottest countries are, in general, those within

the tropics; and the coldest are the polar regions.

123. According to its temperature the earth is divided into five zones, of which two are called the *frigid zones*,

two the temperate zones, and one the torrid zone.

124. The *frigid zones* are those portions of the globe included within the polar circles; one is the *north*, and the other the *south*, frigid zone. Each zone is 1624 miles broad; and, for the most part, too cold to be inhabited by man.

and water all round the globe, comprehended between the polar circles and the tropics; each being 2970 miles broad. The north temperate zone lies between the tropic of Cancer and the arctic circle; and the south temperate zone between the tropic of Capricorn and the antarctic circle.

126. The torrid zone is all that portion of the earth and water round the globe which is included within the tropics,

being 3244 miles broad.

127. Heat and cold do not, however, depend solely on a particular situation in the temperate and torrid zones: the higher a country lies above the level of the sea, the colder it is; and, at a certain height, in every zone, it is so cold, that snow and ice do not melt.

128. The summits of the highest mountains within the torrid zone are covered with perpetual snows. The Andes of South America have climates of all temperatures, from the torrid to the frigid; and the line above which the snow does not melt is called the snow line.

CLIMATE

129. The term climate signifies the prevailing character of the weather at any place, and the causes which determined this are:—1. The latitude of a country; that is, its geographical position with reference to the equator. 2. Elevation of the land above the sea-level. 3. The proximity to, or remoteness of a country from, the sea. 4. The slope of a country, or the aspect it presents to the sun's course. 5. The position and direction of mountain chains. 6. The nature of the soil. 7. The degree of cultivation and improvement at which the country has arrived. 8. The prevalent winds. 9. The annual quantity of rain that falls in a country.

130. We shall now consider these influences separately.

(1.) The latitude of a country, and the consequent direction in which the solar rays fall upon its surface, are the principal causes of the temperature to which it is subject. Within the tropics, the greatest heat is experienced because the sun is always vertical to some portion of the globe within these limits, and the solar action is more intense when the rays are perpendicular to the surface: but as we recede from the equator, they fall more obliquely,

and because fewer of them are spread over a larger space, they are less powerful, and consequently less influential in

promoting temperature.

(2.) Elevation of the land above the sea-level. - We may travel several miles from the equator towards the poles, along the level surface of the earth, before we become sensible of a diminished temperature; but immediately we begin to increase our elevation, a rapid change of temperature is experienced, until we arrive at a point where constant frost prevails. This cold, which reigns in the higher region of the atmosphere, is due to the rarefaction of the air, and to the circumstance of that region being further removed from the heat which is reflected from the earth's surface. As we ascend, the heat gradually diminishes, an ascent of only 1,000 yards causing the thermometer to fall 10°; this sinking, though not uniform with equal ascents, will go on until we reach the line of perpetual congelation. This beautiful provision, of course, increases considerably the number of habitable countries within the Torrid Zone.

- (3.) The proximity to, or remoteness of a country from, the sea. The sea being of a more uniform temperature than the land, the winds that sweep over it partake somewhat of the same character, and impress it upon the physical climate of the countries over which they range. A wind blowing from the ocean is loaded with vapours, but one passing over an extent of land is dry and parched. In our own islands, the south-west and east wind are quite opposite in character: hence it is, that islands and maritime districts enjoy a milder climate than inland regions in the same latitude; the cooler winds from the sea temper the summer heat, and the warmer winds moderate the cold of winter.
- (4.) The slope of a country, or the aspect it presents to the sun's course, has an important influence upon its climate. The angle at which the sun's rays strike the ground, and consequently the power of those rays in heating it, varies with the exposure of the soil relatively to that luminary. When the sun is elevated on the meri-

dian 45 degrees above the horizon, his rays fall perpendicularly on the side of a hill facing the south at an equal angle, while the plain below receives them at an angle of 45 degrees. Supposing the north side of the hill to have a similar slope, the rays would run parallel to its surface, and their effect be very trifling; but if the declivity were still greater, the whole surface would be in This, though an extreme case, serves to show why temperature varies with the inclination of the earth's surface. Since the warmest part of the day is not when the sun is on the meridian, but, owing to the accumulation of the heat, two or three hours afterwards, it follows that, in our hemisphere, a south-south-west or south-western aspect is the warmest; and a north-north-east, or northeastern, the coldest, if no local circumstances exist to make it otherwise.

(5.) The position and direction of mountain chains.—
Mountains affect climate in more ways than one. They
attract the vapours in the atmosphere, and, causing them
to condense, give rise to those violent rains which are
often experienced in the neighbourhood of lofty ranges.

(6.) The nature of the soil is another cause which must very materially operate upon climate. One soil acquires heat, keeps its acquired heat much longer, or radiates it more readily than another. A soil which, from its porous character, allows the rain descending upon it to pass freely into the earth, will emit much fewer exhalations than one which retains the waters near the surface. All the varieties of soil,—light and open, vegetable moulds, gravelly and rocky tracts, stiff wet clays, and sandy plains,—have, it cannot be questioned, their different powers of radiation and absorption; and whether a district be clay or sand, bare or covered with vegetation, for a like cause, greatly effects its temperature.

(7.) The degree of cultivation and improvement at which the country has arrived. — Without cultivation, few climates would be healthy or agreeable. In countries to which the labours of civilised man have never been extended, the rivers, spreading themselves over the low

grounds, form pestilential marshes; and forests, thickets, and weeds, are so numerous and impenetrable, as to prevent the earth from receiving the beneficial influence of the sun's rays. The air, from these causes, is constantly filled with noxious exhalations. But the efforts of the human race, conducted with skill and perseverance, produce a surprising change: marshes are drained; rivers embanked; the soil, broken up by the plough, is exposed to the sun and wind, and the clearing away of the forests raises the temperature, and allows a freer circulation to the atmosphere.

(8.) The prevalent winds.—The combined influence of the several causes of physical climate which we have been considering will be variously modified by the prevalent winds of a country. This is obvious enough, from what has been said in the Chapter on Winds, from which we learn that the character of a wind depends upon the region whence it comes, and the surface over which it passes. Great Britain, for example, would in a great measure lose its insular climate, if its prevailing winds came across the Continent, instead of from the Atlantic Ocean.

(9.) The annual quantity of rain that falls in a country constitutes an important feature of its climate. In general, more rain falls in islands and on sea-coasts than in inland districts, among mountains than in level regions, and within the tropics than in the other zones: the great heat which prevails in the equatorial regions causes the amount of evaporation to be much greater than in higher latitudes, and hence the atmosphere becomes charged with a greater quantity of moisture.

ISOTHERMAL LINES.

131. Isothermals are lines drawn upon a map, connecting all places on the surface of the globe having the same mean annual temperature. If a traveller were to set out, say eastward, and visit in succession all those places which have the same mean temperature, he would trace out on the earth's surface what is called an *Isothermal Line*.

As may be seen on the Physical Map, these isotherms form concave and convex lines, which diverge more and more from the parallels of latitude as they recede from the equator. Now the causes which influence the forms of these lines have been explained in the preceding chapter; but the principal of these is, elevation above the sea-level.

- 132. The lines connecting the points of mean summer temperature are called *Isotherals*. The lines joining the points of mean winter temperature are termed *Isochimenals*.
- 163. The western and middle parts of Africa are the hottest on the earth; because the Trade Winds, in passing over the sandy deserts of this immense continent, become heated to an extreme degree before they arrive at the western coast.

On the American continent the climate is much colder than on the eastern in similar parallels of latitude; and the eastern parts of both continents are colder than the western.

134. Canada, in North America, which is nearly under the same parallels as France, has its winters almost as 's severe as those of Petersburg.

The river St. Lawrence, notwithstanding its great breadth, is sometimes frozen, the whole of the winter, sufficiently strong to bear carriages on its glassy bosom. Canada is also regularly covered with snow from October till April, but so hard as to bear travelling on it. The air too is very dry.

- 135. Philadelphia and New York, which are nearly in the same parallel with Madrid, have frequently very severe winters; but these are compensated by the excessive heat of the summer.
- 136. In the southern hemisphere the cold, in the same latitude, is much greater than in the northern.

The climate of Tierra del Fuego is an instance of this fact. It is as far south as Newcastle is north; yet Captain Cook, who was there at midsummer, found the cold so excessive, that a party of his men, who were botanising on the hills, narrowly escaped perishing.

Captain Parry approached within nine degrees of the North Pole; but Weddell could get no nearer the South Pole than within sixteen degrees. Yet two Russian frigates sailed to within eleven degrees.

137. The weather is commonly more settled on great continents than in islands. The heat of summer is greater in the former; and the cold of winter is less intense in the latter.

In islands the heat is tempered by clouds and vapours from the surrounding sea; and, from the same cause, the weather is inconstant. Hence, also, the cold of winter is mitigated; and, generally, the frost is of short duration. This is particularly the case with the British Isles.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS.

138. The vegetable kingdom has been divided into three great classes; namely, Cryptogamic, Endogenous, and Exogenous plants, and these have been again divided into numerous natural families.

(1.) Cryptogamous or flowerless plants, embracing

mosses, lichens, fungi, ferns, sea-weeds, &c.

- (2.) Endogenous plants, which have their stems increasing from within, as the numerous grasses, comprehending rushes, sedges, and the most important of all vegetable tribes, viz., the valuable pasture and all the corn-yielding plants, wheat, barley, oats, maize, rice, the sugar-cane, &c., with lilies and the palm family. These are also called monocotyledons, from having only one seedlobe.
- (3.) Exogenous plants, which have their stems growing by additions from without; these are the most perfect, beautiful, and numerous class, embracing the forest trees, as the oak, elm, pine, chestnut, poplar, hazel, willow, birch, &c., with the laburnum, and some of the stateliest members of the tropical forest, as the mimosa, tamarind, and the trees yielding logwood, Brazil-wood, &c., most of the flowering shrubs and herbs, as the rhododendron, azalea, arbutus, thyme, sage, lavender, mint, rosemary, with the plants yielding castor, croton, and other oils; also the dahlia, artichoke, thistle, lettuce, marigold, dandelion, daisy, &c. These are also called dicotyledons, from the seed consisting of two lobes.

139. The last two classes belong to the phanogamous,

or flower-bearing plants.

VEGETATION ZONES.

140. The Equatorial Zone of Palms and Bananas extends on both sides of the equator of temperature to about 15°. Its temperature ranges from the maximum heat to 70°. This may also be distinguished as the region of the spices and aromatic plants; it includes the Molucca group of islands, and the northern part of South America. The region of medicinal barks is that of the elevated regions of South America, from twelve hundred to five thousand feet above the level of the sea.

141. The Tropical Zone of Tree-Ferns and Figs, from lat. 15° to the tropics, having a mean annual temperature of 76°. In the Old Continent the date-palm flourishes; in Western Africa is the peculiar genus adansonia, the baobab, or monkey bread, the largest known tree in the world. In both the Indian peninsulas monster fig-trees, aromatic lilies, and woods of aromatic

barks, as the cinnamon and cassia, abound.

142. The Sub-Tropical Zone of Myrtles and Laurels, from the tropics to lat. 34°, having a mean annual temperature of 76°. This region is distinguished in the New World by various species of conifers, oaks, and walnuts; the magnolias, chiefly large trees, with large leaves and highly odorous flowers, in the southern part of North America. On the Old Continent, the slender date-palm soars aloft; and the tender-leaved acacias flourish. The palm family is numerous, within the above limits, throughout the continent of Asia.

143. The Warm Temperate Zone of Evergreen Trees, from lat...34° to 45°, mean annual temperature 58°. In this region of evergreen woods the dwarf-palm is here and there met with, the hyacinth, and narcissus; northward, the myrtle, tinus, arbutus, and pistachio, interlaced, on the Alpine barrier, with the vine and the flame-coloured bignonias. In the New World this region is

marked by a great variety of oaks and firs.

144. The Cold Temperate Zone of European Trees, between 45° and 58°, mean annual temperature 48°. This

region, which comprises the lake district in the New World, and is bounded in the Old Continent by the Pyrenees, Alps, and Caucasus, consists of vast forests of different species of pine. In Central and Western Europe. there are extensive woods of chestnut, oak, and beech trees. In the more eastern portion, the lime and elm contribute abundantly to the composition of forests. basin of the Mediterranean is distinguished by the abundance of aromatic labiate plants, lily plants, and the resinous rock-roses. Here we find, in the hop and the climatis, representations of the tropical climbers, and the solitary dwarf-palm and balsam trees denote the transition from the tropics.

145. The Sub-Arctic Zone of Conifers, from lat. 58° to the Polar circle, mean annual temperature 40°. This region consists of widely extended masses of forest, including firs and pines, Siberian stone-pines, birch, aspen, and larch. By brooks and on damp soil the willow and alder occur; on dry hills grow the rein-deer lichen and Iceland moss. A rich carpet of variegated flowers serves for the decoration of this zone.

146. The Arctic Zone of Rhododendrons, from the Polar circle to lat. 72°, mean annual temperature 30°. This region is charactised by the abundance of mosses and lichens, and by the presence of the saxifrages, poppies, crow-foots and gentians; the chick-weed tribe, sedges, willow, and fir.

147. The Polar Zone of Alpine Plants and Red-Snow Alga, beyond lat. 72°, the region of everlasting ice and

snow, in which all animal life goes out.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF ANIMALS.

148. In the present chapter we shall consider the distribution of the animal kingdom according to the following classes, beginning with the lowest, and ascending to the highest order of animal life; viz. zoophytes, insects, marine and shell-fish, fishes, reptiles, birds and quadrupeds.

149. Zoophytes are the lowest class of animals, and may be regarded as confused masses of beings, none of them endued with a separate life. Coral is externally an animal and internally a rock; madrepores and millepores, on the contrary, have a stony covering, and seem to exist only in regions warmed by a vertical sun. Those vast reefs throughout the Pacific and Indian oceans have been raised by these creatures. In the Mediterranean there are large seas of coral; Sicily, in particular, has long been famed for its fisheries of the true red coral: the gulfs of Arabia and of Persia are peopled with subterranean forests of zoophytes. The mollusca, whether naked or covered, possess each an individual existence. The pearl oyster arrives at perfection only in tropical seas.

150. Insects are the next in the scale of animal existence; they are distributed through all latitudes, but increase in kinds and in numbers from the poles towards the equator. The stations of insect tribes are the sea, the sea-shores, brackish waters, fresh water, various kinds of soil, mountains, living vegetables, decomposed vegetables,

living animals, dead animals.

151. It is amidst the exuberant vegetation of the Torrid Zone that insect life attains its full development. In the tropical regions of Central and South America innumerable quantities of shining flies present, at night, the appearance of an extensive conflagration. The butterflies of America, of Africa, and of the East Indies, are adorned with the most brilliant colours.

152. Marine Shell-fish and Fishes. The conchology of the Indian seas is the most splendid, profuse, and varied, of any division of the globe; America and the West Indies are very deficient in species, compared with those of Asia in similar latitudes. The shells of the Austral Ocean rank next in splendour to those of the Indian seas. Many species of the shell-fish of the Mediterranean are similar to those of the Red Sea, the northern coast of Africa, and of the Indian Ocean. The shell-fish of Northern Europe are not distinguished for their variety or splendour.

153. Fishes. It is probable that every basin of the ocean has its peculiar tribes, and the regions which some inhabit are well known; thus the cod, which are distributed all over the North Atlantic, congregate chiefly upon the great banks to the south and south-east of Newfoundland. In the Torrid Zone and its vicinity the most remarkable species of fish are met with. Sharks, which are noted for their extreme ferocity, roam in the deep open ocean in tropical and warm climates: the porcupine fish is an inhabitant of warm seas; the saw-fish inhabits the Atlantic Ocean, extending its range across the whole expanse of waters. The sword-fish is found in the Mediterranean, and perhaps extends its range to the coasts of America. The family of the flying-fish is met with in all tropical seas, in the Atlantic as well as the Pacific Ocean. The most enormous of all fishes in size are the whale tribe, which belong more particularly to the high latitudes.

154. The most remarkable of all fishes are the gymnoti (electric eels), which inhabit several of the rivers and pools in the llanos of South America; all the inhabitants of the waters dread the society of these animals. The migrations of fishes seems to be occasioned by their seeking for shallow water in order to deposit their spawn. The torpedo, or cramp-fish, is dispersed over all the seas: but the shocks which it communicates cannot be compared in violence to those of the gymnotus.

155. Reptiles,—which are divided into two classes, reptilia and amphibia,—arrive at their full development in the equatorial regions, particularly in tropical America, owing to the combined influence of intense heat, extensive forests, marshes and rivers; the former includes tortoises and turtles, lizards, crocodiles, and serpents; the latter includes frogs, toads, and salamanders. The larger boas belong to the New World, as also the rattle-snakes, of which there are four species; the pythons are confined to Mrica and Asia. The crocodile proper inhabits the Nile; the alligator or cayman, America; and the gavial is limited to the Ganges and other Indian rivers. The

amphibia are more capable of enduring the extremes of temperature than the true reptilia, and accordingly their range is greater; and although they are larger and more numerous in the warm regions of the earth, they also

exist in high and cold latitudes.

156. Birds. The Torrid Zone possesses a variety of the most beautiful birds, including the humming-bird of America, the cockatoos, the bird of Paradise, the lories, and several others of the parrot genus. The bird of Paradise is confined to New Guinea and the neighbouring islands. Of birds which cannot fly, the ostrich inhabits Africa and Arabia; the cassowary, Java and New Holland; and in South America is the ostrich of Brazil. The albatross is seen skimming the surface of the ocean as we approach the 40th parallel; the sea swallows and other tropical birds keep within the Torrid Zone. The condor, which frequently soars to an elevation of four miles, never forsakes the chain of the Cordilleras of Peru and Mexico; and the great eagle does not quit the ridges of the Alps. The frozen zones have their own kinds of birds, among which are owls (in Lapland), ducks, and other aquatic birds. The jer-falcons of Norway and Iceland, perfect models of symmetry and strength, and the most characteristic and vigorous of all the birds of prey, are quite unknown, not only within the tropics, but even . in the temperate latitudes, excepting upon the summits of very lofty mountains, where the climate is cold: and even there they want the dash and vigour of the hawks of the north.

157. Mammalia, or mammiferous quadrupeds: these stand at the head of the animal creation, and are distributed into eight great groups; though they differ vastly in appearance and habits, they nevertheless correspond in one particular, that of suckling their young. The groups, with some of their types, are as follow:

158. 1. Quadrumana (four-handed), — monkeys, apes (simiæ). 2. Carnivora (flesh-eaters), — cat (in this tribe the sanguinary desire is most strongly developed in the lion, tiger, and sea-otter), hyæna, bear, civet, glutton,

mole. 3. Marsupialia (pouched), —opossum, kangaroo, wombat. 4. Rodentia (gnawers), —beaver, porcupine, squirrel, jerboa. 5. Edentata (toothless), —sloth, armadillo, ornithorynchus. 6. Pachydermata (thick-skinned), —elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, zebra, tapir, horse, ass, boar, and badger. 7. Ruminantia (chewing the cud), —camel, ox, goat, sheep, deer, antelope, giraffe. 8. Cetacea (belonging to whales), — whale, dolphin, narwhal, seal, porpoise.

159. The ranges of some of these animals are very ex-

tensive.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF MAN.

160. Man, the Lord of Creation, has the whole earth for his abode. The physical capabilities of his frame fit him for every variety of climate, soil, and situation; and, being capable of deriving nourishment from all kinds of food, his habitations extend to the remotest confines of animated nature. Under the scorching rays of a tropical sun, upon the banks of the Senegal, the human body supports a heat which causes spirits of wine to boil; and in the polar regions of north-east Asia it resists a cold which freezes mercury.

161. On this fact Dr. Paley remarks: "The human animal is the only one which is naked and the only one which can clothe itself. This is one of the properties which renders him an animal of all climates, and of all seasons. He can adapt the warmth or lightness of his covering to the temperature of his habitation. Had he been born with a fleece upon his back, although he might have been comforted by its warmth in high latitudes, it would have oppressed him by its weight and heat as the species spread towards the equator."

162. The different races into which the human family have been divided, will be found described at pages 12 and 13; their characteristic features are indicated upon the small physical map. But mankind may all be divided

into three classes with regard to their modes of life, according to the nature and climate of the country which they inhabit. 1. Roving tribes and fishers; 2. Wandering pastoral tribes; or, 3. Fixed nations.

163. The first class embraces all those tribes and small nations who subsist by hunting and fishing, but

rove about without any fixed habitation.

164. Under the second class are included those nations or tribes who have no settled residence, but live in moveable tents, and, with their flocks and herds, wander from place to place, in the extensive plains which are common to Asia and some parts of Africa. Such are the Laplanders in Europe; the Arabs, the Calmucks, the Monguls, and the Tartar tribes of Asia, whose food consists of the flesh and milk of tame animals, as of camels, horses, horned cattle, sheep, and reindeer.

165. The third class comprehends all those nations that have permanent habitations, and dwell in cities, towns, and villages. Such are the nations of Europe; the Persians, the Chinese, the Japanese, the Hindoos in Asia; all European colonies; the European settlers in Mexico, Peru, Chili, Brazil, the United States of America, &c., whose land is divided among different owners, and

rendered productive by agriculture.

166. Their ideas of property further distinguish these

three grand classes of mankind.

167. The property of the first consists entirely in their utensils and weapons, and the food they have just acquired. Herds and tents constitute the property of the second class; for the right of pasturage is common to all. The third alone have property in land.

168. Modes of life furnish another important dis-

tinction.

169. People who live only by hunting and fishing are ignorant, unsociable and mostly cruel; the pastoral tribes are less ferocious savages, or barbarians, though they have little civilisation; and nations engaged in agriculture and commerce are always enlightened and civilised.

170. Education and learning, or the knowledge of

the arts and sciences, essentially contribute towards civilisation.

171. To promote it, various institutions are established among fixed nations; as schools for youth, universities, or colleges, and academies of arts and sciences.

172. In an university the whole extent of human learning is usually taught; but most generally philosophy,

divinity, physic, law, and the learned languages.

173. Such are the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, St. Andrew's, and Dublin, in the British Empire; Upsal, in Sweden; Berlin, Munich, Göttingen, &c., in Germany; Leyden, in Holland; Pennsylvania, in America; Benares, in Hindostan; and several others in Europe, Asia, and America.

174. Academies, or societies, of learned men, are incorporated with or without the patronage of the state for

the purpose of promoting the arts and sciences.

175. Such are the Royal Society in London; the Institute of France; the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin; the Imperial Academy of Sciences and the Fine Arts, at Petersburgh; the Royal Academy of the Fine Arts in London; the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c.

DIFFERENCE OF LANGUAGE AND NATION.

176. Mankind differ also in languages, religion, civilisa-

tion, and form of government.

177. The learned geographer Balbi enumerates eight hundred and sixty distinct languages, besides five thousand dialects.

178. Of these languages fifty-three belong to Europe, one hundred and fourteen to Africa, one hundred and fifty-three to Asia, four hundred and twenty-three to America, and one hundred and seventeen to Oceanica, or the numerous islands stretching between Hindostan and South America.

179. A likeness or difference of language implies an identity or difference of people or nation.

Illus. 1. People who speak the same language, or a dialect of the same language, belong to the same nation; where there is no resemblance of language, they are different nations, though living under the

same government.

2. Thus the Germans, Dutch, Danes, and Swedes, are one nation, speaking all dialects of the same language, though citizens of different states widely distant. But the English, the Welsh, and the Highlanders of Scotland, are distinct nations, belonging to the same state.

180. The French, Italian, English, and German, are the most polite and cultivated languages of Europe; and

in Asia, the Arabic, Persian, and Sanscrit.

181. The most widely diffused languages in the world are, 1. The German or Teutonic, with its dialects, of which the English is one; 2. the Slavonic, of which the Russian is a dialect; 3. The Arabic, which is also the religious language of all Mahomedan countries; and, 4. The Chinese, which perhaps is the most extensive of any.

DIFFERENCE OF RELIGION.

182. As all savage nations practise some religious or superstitious ceremonies, it would appear that there is no people entirely destitute of the knowledge of a Supreme Being, though with some rude tribes this knowledge is very imperfect.

183. The difference of religion divides mankind into classes: 1. Those who worship one God, and have sacred writings containing His will for the regulation of their lives; 2. Those who, instead of Him, or besides Him,

worship supposed deities of different kinds.

184. The first include the Jews, Christians, and Mahomedans; the second are called Heathen or Pagans.

185. Christians are divided into, 1. The Roman Catholics; 2. The Protestants; and, 3. The Greek church. But each is subdivided into numerous sects or parties.

186. The Mahomedans are divided into, 1. The sect of Omar, to which belong the Turks and Arabians; 2. The Sect of Ali, who are the Mahomedans of Persia.

187. The Hindoos and Chinese, with other nations,

acknowledge ONE God; but worship, beside him, images of various kinds.

188. The Pagans seem also to acknowledge a Supreme Being; but they likewise worship natural objects, as the sun, fire, rivers, plants, beasts, insects, serpents, &c.

189. The Jews are scattered over Europe and Asia: their religion is therefore professed in all those countries

in which they live.

190. The Christian religion is established in almost all Europe, and in some parts of Asia and Africa; in America, and in all the European colonies, it is widely diffused.

191. There is no endowed religion in the United States, consequently no hierarchy nor tithes, but all

religions enjoy the same liberal toleration.

192. The Mahomedan religion has its chief seat in Asia, especially in Arabia, Turkey, Persia, and Tartary; but it is also established in northern and a great part of

central Africa, and in European Turkey.

193. The nations of the interior of Africa, the savage tribes of America, the more gentle islanders of the Pacific and Indian Oceans, the rude tribes of the north of Asia, are Heathen, imposed on by their priests and sorcerers, called Fetishers, Angekoks, Shamans, &c.

SOCIETY AND FORMS OF GOVERNMENT.

194. Savage tribes, having little connection among themselves, have seldom any laws or government. Nations united in a body frame and adopt laws and a form of government, to which every individual submits for the general good of the community.

195. A state or commonwealth is a body of people connected by the same government, and yielding obe-

dience to the same general laws.

196. The members of some states are free, enjoying equal rights and privileges, and are subject to the supreme law alone, as in the northern provinces of the

United States; in others, a difference of rights prevails, and some are slaves or vassals, some commons and citizens, and some few are called nobles, enjoying peculiar

privileges.

197. The *origin* of all states is either traced to force or conquest, when the majority is compelled to yield to the will of a few, or of one man; or it springs from a social compact, by which a *constitution*, or fundamental laws, are fixed for the government of the state and the welfare of individuals.

198. The exercise of supreme power is either vested

in one or shared by many.

199. The supreme power consists of three parts: 1. The legislative, which enacts laws; 2. The judicial, which determines the application of the law in individual cases; and 3. The executive, which puts the laws in execution.

200. A monarchy is that state in which the supreme power is vested in one person; and it may be either arbi-

trary, limited, hereditary, or elective.

201. When the monarch has the exercise of the supreme power without control, when his will is the law, the state is called an *arbitrary* or *despotic* monarchy; as Russia,

Turkey, and many of the states of Asia.

202. That state wherein the monarch has only a part of the supreme power in common with some of his subjects (as the nobility, clergy, and commons), and is bound to observe the fundamental laws or constitution of the kingdom, is called a *limited monarchy*.

203. The subjects having a share in the government are named peers, estates, representatives, &c.; and their

assembly is called a diet, a parliament, &c.

204. Sweden and Britain are limited monarchies.

205. Hereditary monarchy descends, by inheritance, to a relation of the same family.

206. Britain, Spain, and Prussia, are hereditary monarchies.

207. In an elective monarchy the chief magistrate is

chosen by certain electors on the death or abdication of his predecessor.

208. Such were once Poland and the German Empire.

209. A republic is that state in which the supreme power is shared by many; and it may be either an aristocracy or a democracy.

210. An aristocracy is a republican state, wherein the supreme power is consigned to the nobles, or to a few

privileged men.

211. Venice and Genoa were once of this class.

212. A democracy is a republican state, wherein the supreme power is placed in the hands of rulers chosen by and from the whole body of the people, or by their representatives assembled in a congress or national assembly; as the United States of America, which elect their president every four years.

213. Political liberty is enjoyed in various degrees, according to the modifications of the government or the

constitution of states.

Obs. 1. In Britain, monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy are blended; and the powers of the king, the lords, and the commons, have been so modified as to form a reciprocal check to each other, and therefore a safeguard against oppression.

2. Aristocracy and democracy are blended in the Swiss states.

214. According to its extent, population, revenue, naval and military force, and civilisation, so do we judge of the *strength* of any state.

PRODUCTIONS OF THE EARTH WHICH FORM ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.

215. All natural productions are arranged under three grand classes, called KINGDOMS: 1. The *Mineral*; 2. The *Vegetable*; and 3. The *Animal* kingdom.

216. The *Mineral* kingdom contains, 1. all earths and stones; 2. mineral combustibles; 3. salts; and, 4. metals.

217. The *Vegetable* kingdom includes all trees, shrubs, and plants, whether in the ocean or on the land; hence we speak of *marine* and *terrestrial* vegetables.

218. The Animal kingdom contains all living creatures, as, 1. quadrupeds; 2. bipeds; 3. fowls; 4. fishes: 5.

reptiles; 6. insects; 7. worms.

219. Man, the chief of the world, is, on earth, the noblest of all God's creatures. The faculties of reason and speech distinguish him as lord of the creation; and his progressive improvement marks his pre-eminence above all other animals.

220. The following are the principal exports of the different countries.

EUROPE.

221. England.—Cotton manufactures, woollen manufactures, cotton yarn, linen manufactures, hardware and cutlery, refined sugar, iron and steel (wrought and unwrought), brass and copper manufactures, silk manufactures, earthenware, glass, wearing apparel, haberdashery, &c.; leather, sadlery, &c.; butter and cheese, tin and pewter wares, &c.; fish, soap and candles; fire arms and ammunition, hats, beer and ale, machinery, plate and jewellery, coals, salt, stationery, lead and shot, tin, painters' colours.

222. Wales. - Coal, iron in vast quantities, copper, tin,

lead, slate, woollen cloth, cattle.

223. Scotland. — Cotton and linen stuffs, cotton and linen yarn, wool, iron, hardware, silk goods, coals, spirits, beer, black cattle, sheep, herrings, salmon and other salted and fresh fish, stationery, &c.

224. Ireland.—Linen manufactures, cotton manufactures, wheat, flour, oatmeal, &c.; barley, oats and other grain; cows and oxen, swine, horses, bacon and hams, beef and pork, butter, lard, soap and candles, flax (un-

dressed), spirits, yarn, and other articles.

225. France.—Silk, cotton, wine, wool, ribands, brandies, linen, cambric and lawn, dye stuffs, mercery, clothes, liqueurs, Parisian articles, perfumery, refined sugar, clock and watch-work, paper, tabletterie, porcelain, plaque, glass, gems, straw hats, sheep, horses.

226. Switzerland. — Horned cattle, cheese, ribands, thread, linens, silk, laces, watches, jewellery, &c.

227. Belgium. - Oak-bark, flax, madder, clover-seed,

vegetable oils, lace, lawn, and fine linen.

228. Holland.—Butter, cheese, madder, spirits, tobacco-

pipes, flax.

229. Germany.—Grain, salted provisions, especially hams, live cattle and hogs, timber, iron and steel, lead, salt, linen, linen yarn, and linen rags, woollens, porcelain,

glass.

230. Austrian Empire. — Woollen wares, silk (raw, spun, and manufactured), wool, cotton wares, fine linen, corn, cattle, iron, fruits, cheese, &c.; timber and wooden wares, wine and spirits, wax and honey, cotton; linen and woollen yarn; salt, potashes, tobacco, quicksilver, dye stuffs, wrought silver, jewels, olive oil, coffee, refined sugar.

231. Prussia.—Corn, wool, timber, Westphalian hams, zinc, flax, bristles, salted provisions, and other articles of raw produce, linen and woollen cloths, silk wares, iron and hardware, jewellery, watches, and wooden clocks, Prussian

blue, spirits, beer, amber, &c.

232. Denmark and her Dependencies.— Wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, pease, tares, beans, rape-seed, flax and other seeds, clover-seed, oil-cakes for fatting cattle, butter, cheese, pork (salted and smoked), beef (salted and smoked), tallow, horses, oxen, pigs, corn, brandy, hides (horse and ox), skins, honey, wax, goosequills, wood for fuel, herrings, fish (salted or smoked), oysters, eider down, feathers for beds, walrus skins, reindeer skins, fox, seal, train oil, whalebone.

233. Sweden and Norway. - Timber, iron, copper,

alum, cobalt, eider down, pitch and tar.

234. Russia.—Tallow, grain, particularly wheat, hemp, and flax; potashes, bristles, linseed and hemp seed, oils, furs, leather; fox, hare, and squirrel skins; canvass, wool, caviar, wax, isinglass, tar, &c.

235. Spain. — Wine, wool, fruits of various kinds, lead, quicksilver, brandy, barilla, olive oil, raw silk, wheat, &c. 236. Portugal. — Wine, oil, salt, wool, fruits, cork, &c.

237. Italy. — Raw and thrown silk, silk manufactures, olive oil, corn, wine, cheese, raisins, almonds, and oranges, brimstone, barilla, liquorice, bark, shumac, straw hats,

and straw plaiting, marble, hemp, rags, &c.

238. Sicily. — Shumac, fruits, wines and spirits, brimstone, oils (linseed and olive), linseed, manna, silk, barilla, liquorice paste, salt, argol, and cream of tartar, corn, grain, rice, and pulse, cotton wool, skins, lemon juice, cheese, wool, and other articles.

239. Turkey. — Sheep's wool, goat's hair, cattle, horses, hogs, hides, hare skins, wheat, raw cotton and silk, tobacco, raisins, figs, almonds, mastic and other gums, gall-nuts, leeches, honey, wax, saffron, madder, linseed, turpentine, safflower, Meerschaum pipes, whetstones, carpets, silk and cotton fabrics, leather, copper and metallic wares. &c.

240. Greece. — Cotton, corn, olive oil, wool, tobacco, currants, silk, cheese, dve stuffs, honey, and fruits.

ASIA.

241. Asiatic Turkey.—Raw silk, goat's hair, Turkey carpets, raisins, drugs, and gums.

242. Arabia.—Coffee, pearls, dried dates, skins, horses, senna leaves, indigo, gums of various kinds, and myrrh.

243. Persia. — Silk, gall-nuts, wool, madder, yellow berries, pearls and precious stones, dried fruits, tobacco, wine, drugs, sulphur, torquoises, Kerman shawls, rose water, horses, raw silk, grain, cotton, carpets, cotton manufactures, salt, sheep, woollens, silk stuffs, and gold embroidery, arms, Hamadan leather, sugar (raw and refined), and opium, Indian goods, wheat, dates, rice, timber, raw hides, naphtha, brocades, cashmere shawls, pearls, &c.

244. India. — Cotton wool, cassia, cinnamon, coffee, cotton goods, elephants' teeth, ginger, gum-arabic, lac-dye, shell-lac, hemp, hides, indigo, castor oil, pepper, rice, salt-petre, and cubic nitre, flax seed and linseed, senna, raw and waste silk, bandanna handkerchiefs, sugar (unrefined), tea, tin, tobacco (unmanufactured), sheep's wool.

245. South-Eastern Peninsula.—Cotton, silk, tin, teak-wood, eagle-wood, sandal-wood, gum-lac, grain, salt, oil, sugar, pepper, precious stones, particularly rubies and agates, iron, and varnished works.

AFRICA.

246. Egypt. — Grain and coarse linen, cotton, indigo.

247. Nutia. — Cotton goods, arms, and a variety of trifling articles.

248. Abyssinia. - Ivory, gold, and slaves.

249. Barbary.—Olive oil, soap, almonds (sweet and bitter), cow hides, and calf skins, goat skins, ostrich fea-

thers, fruit, gold dust, ivory, and gums.

250. Soudan. — Gold is found in the river-courses; but man is the staple commerce, a disgrace to the savage who sells his fellow-creature, but a far greater disgrace to the more savage purchaser, who dares to assume the sacred name of Christian.

251. Southern Africa. - Corn, wine, bacon.

252. Islands of Africa. — Wine, fruits, the vegetable juice called dragon's blood, honey and wax, tobacco.

AMERICA.

253. British America. — Fish oil, hides, furs, timber, ashes, soap, and candles, flour, cattle, salt provisions, coal,

gypsum, plaster of Paris.

254. United States.— Timber, pot and pearl ashes, wheat, cotton, fish (dried and pickled), whale and other fish oil, spermaceti oil, and candles, skins and furs, ginsing, masts and spars, oak-bark, tar, pitch, resin and turpentine, beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle, butter and cheese, pork, bacon, lard, live hogs, horses and mules, wheat, flour, Indian corn, Indian meal, rye meal, rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse, biscuit, or ship bread, rice, tobacco, cotton, wool, flax seed, soap and tallow candles, leather, wax, snuff, linseed oil, and spirits of turpentine, spirits from molasses, refined sugar, paper and stationery, lead, indigo, and other articles.

255. Texas. - Cotton, skins (deer, beaver, otter), hides.

256. Mexico. — Precious metals, cochineal, sugar, flourindigo, provisions, vanilla, sarsaparilla, jalap, logwood.

257. California. - Gold, dates, figs, wine, pearls, tor-

toise shell, bullocks, hides, dried beef.

258. Central America. — Bullion, indigo, cochineal, dye-woods, sarsaparilla, balsam of Peru, hides.

259. Colombia. - Coffee, cocoa, indigo, hides.

260. Peru. - Gold, silver, bark, cocoa, cotton.

261. Chili.—Bullion, copper, hides, tallow, pulse, wheat.

262. La Plata. — Ox hides, horns, horse hides, beef, horse-hair, sheep's wool, tallow, cattle, gold, silver.

263. Brazil.—Sugar, coffee, cotton, hides, bullion, rice,

tobacco, dye and other woods, cocoa, &c.

264. Guiana. — Coffee, rum, sugar, cotton, molasses, arrow-root, cloves, pepper, wood (for cabinet making).

266. West Indies.—Sugar, rum, coffee, cotton, cocoa, inclasses, pimento, ginger, mahogany, logwood, indigo, cochineal, castor oil, sarsaparilla, pepper, &c.

REMAINING ISLANDS OF AMERICA.

267. Newfoundland. — Cod fish.

268. Prince Edward's Island. - Fish and lumber.

269. Greenland. — Whale oil, seal, bear and reindeer skins, eider down, &c.

OCEANIA.

270. Malaysia. — Nutmeg, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, coffee, rice, tin, gold, diamonds, pearls, ivory, edible birds' nests, sandal-wood, indigo, cotton, sugar, tobacco, camphor, turpentine, betel leaf, furs, lint and wool of the finest quality, whale oil, tortoise shell, birds of paradise, cocoas, ginger, sago, canes, rattans, areca-nuts, bamboos, bread-fruit, wood of various kinds for buildings and cabinet-making, teak, &c.

271. Australasia. — Wool, and whale-oil, tortoise-shell, bees' wax, massoy-bark, birds of paradise, trepang

or sea-slug, and edible birds'-nests.

272. Polynesia. — Pearl shells and pearls, sugar, cocoanut-oil, and arrow-root.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

IN

GEOGRAPHY.

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of the word Geography?

2. Into how many branches has the subject been divided?

3. Explain the meaning of the terms, Astronomical, Physical, and Political Geography.

4. Of what shape is the earth?

Mention some of the facts from which we conclude that the earth is a round body.

Explain how lunar eclipses tend to prove that the earth is of a globular form.

7. What is the visible or sensible horizon?

8. How many points does the compass contain?

9. What are the cardinal points? What are maps?

10. What side of a map is generally the north? south? east? west?

11. What is the earth's axis?

 What is the earth's axis?
 Mention the principal lines that are supposed to be drawn upon the earth's surface.

13. Explain the terms, equator, parallels of latitude—meridian.

14. What is meant by the latitude and longitude of any place in the earth's surface?

15. What are the tropics? the arctic and antarctic circles?

- 16. Name the zones into which the earth's surface is supposed to be divided.
- 17. What are the two great natural divisions of the earth's surface?
- Mention the terms that are applied to the various portions of land and water.
- 19. What is a continent? an island? a peninsula? an isthmus? a coast? a shore? a promontory? a cape?

20. Name the great oceans. Give their boundaries.

21. Give some of the examples of seas - of gulfs - of bays.

22. What is a harbour? a road or roadstead? a creek?

23. Give examples of straits - channels - a frith or firth.

24. What are constant and occasional currents?

25. Name some of the largest lakes and rivers.

- 26. Name the principal mountains in Europe, Asia, Africa and America.
- 27. What are upland and lowland plains? valleys? deserts?
- 28. What is the estimated extent of the earth's surface?
- 29. Mention the number of square miles of dry land and of water upon the earth's surface.
- 30. What is the proportion of land and water in each hemisphere?
- 31. Give examples of the triangular shape of large masses of land.
- 32. Mention some of the largest peninsulas in the world.
- 38. What is the area of Europe? Asia? Africa? North America. with the West India islands? South America? Oceania?
- 34. What is the estimated number of human beings?
- 35. How many inhabitants are there supposed to be in Europe? in Asia? in Africa? in America? in Oceania?
- 36. Name the five classes into which mankind have been divided.
- 37. What are the distinguishing features of the Caucasian race? of the Mongolian? of the Ethiopic? of the Malay? of the American?

EUROPE.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

- 1. Between what parallels of latitude does it lie?
- 2. What degrees of longitude limit it on the east and west?
- 3. What are the boundaries of Europe on the north? south? west?
- 4. What is its length and breadth? its area in square miles?
- 5. How is it divided in respect to its natural features?
- 6. What is the length of its coast-line?
- 7. Name the inlets of the Arctic Ocean on the north of Europe.
- 8. What are the branches of the Atlantic on the east of this continent?
- 9. Mention the arms of the Mediterranean on the south of the continent.
- 10. Name the straits and channels around the northern shores, around the British Islands, in the Baltic, in the Mediterranean and its branches.
- 11. What are the promontories and capes of the northern coast line. particularly those of the British Islands? And of the south?
- 12. Mention the peninsulas and isthmuses.
- 13. Name the islands in the Arctic Ocean. In the Atlantic. In the Baltic Sea. In the Gulf of Finland. In the North Sea. or German Ocean. In the Irish Sea. In the English Channel. In the Bay of Biscay. In the Mediterranean.

- 14. What are the principal mountain ranges on the continent?
- 15. Mention the most remarkable table lands. The active volcances.
- 16. Name the most remarkable plains and valleys.
- 17. What are the most extensive wastes of the continent?
- 18. What European rivers fall into the Arctic Ocean? into the Baltic? into the Atlantic from Western Europe?
- 19. What British rivers flow eastward into the Atlantic and its branches? what rivers flow westward?
- Name some of the large lakes in Russia. In Finland. In Lapland. In Sweden. In Switzerland. In Italy. In Hungary.
- 21. Name the climatal zones into which Europe may be divided.
- 22. What are the most important mineral productions?
- 23. Name some of the countries distinguished for their metals.
- 24. What metals are obtained from the Oural mountains?
- 25. Mention some of the chief vegetable productions south of the 38th parallel.
- 26. What plants are limited in their range northward by the parallel of 440?
- 27. What are the most remarkable forest trees to the south of 44°?
- 28. What is the northern limit of the growth of bread-corns?
- 29. What parallels limit on the north the growth of the oak? the ash? the beech and lime? the firs and pines?
- Mention some of the trees and shrubs met with in the Alps.
 In the Pyrenees.
- Name some of the larger wild animals, and the regions they inhabit.
- 32. What are the most useful domestic animals?
- 33. Mention the larger birds of prey, and the countries they inhabit.
- 34. Mention some of the song birds.
- 35. What are the principal fishes inhabiting the oceans and seas?
- 36. To which of the five races of mankind do the Europeans belong?
- 37. Name the families into which the Europeans are grouped.
- 38. Mention the countries inhabited by these different families.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

- 39. What are the two great natural divisions of Europe? and what countries are included in these divisions?
- 40. How many political divisions does Europe at present (1850) contain?
- 41. What states stand in the first political rank? in the second? in the third?
- 42. What are the classes into which the different governments may be arranged?
- 43. Name the insular countries with their capitals and situations.
- 44. What are the countries of western? of southern? of eastern? of northern? and of Central Europe?

- 45. Name the capitals of these countries, and their situation.
- 46. In what countries are the inhabitants chiefly Protestants? Roman Catholics?
- 47. In what country is the "Greek church" established?
- 48. In what country is Mahommedanism professed?
- 49. Mention some of the most densely populated countries.

THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

- Name the countries which make up the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.
- 51. Give the greatest length and breadth of Great Britain.
- 52. Describe the general features of England.
- 53. What are the principal mountain ranges?
- 54. Name some of the largest rivers lakes islands.
- 55. Give the names and chief towns of the northern counties, the western, the north midland, the south midland, the eastern, the south-eastern, the southern and the south-western.
- 56. What are the principal cities and towns?
- 57. In what localities is the cotton manufacture carried on?
- 58. Where are the seats of the woollen manufacture?
- Mention the towns in which the silk and lace manufactures are carried on.
- 60. Where are hardware, firearms, and earthenware principally manufactured?
- 61. What county is noted for the manufacture of shoes? what county of cordage?
- 62. From what countries do we obtain coal?
- 63. From what counties do we procure lead? zinc? copper?
- 64. Name the large seaport towns.
- 65. What is said of London? Liverpool? Bristol? Newcastle? Sunderland? Portsmouth?
- 66. What are the remarkable watering places inland? on the sea coast?
- 67. What are the chief manufacturing towns? State what manufacture is carried on at each.
- 68. For what are Oxford and Cambridge remarkable?
- 69. What is the area in acres of England? Wales? Scotland? Ireland?
- 70. What is the estimated number of families in England? in Scotland?
- 71. What is the amount of taxes collected in England? Scotland? Ireland?
- 72. What is the number of trading vessels belonging to the United Kingdom?
- 73. How many miles of canals are laid down in England?

74. What is the estimated cost of the railways in England?

75. What is the value of the exports of the United Kingdom? of the re-exports? of the imports?

76. What is the amount of the national debt?

- 77. Of how many men does the regular army consist?
- 78. How many ships of the navy are employed in time of peace?
- 79. How many seamen and mariners are there usually in the roval navy?

80. By whom are the laws made? By whom administered?

WALES.

81. Describe the natural features of Wales.

82. What countries produce coal and iron?

83. For what are Merthyr Tydvil and Swansea remarkable?

84. In what part of Wales are their copper mines?

85. For what manufacture is Welshpool noted? 86. By what race of people is the country chiefly inhabited? what

language do they speak? 87. How many counties are there in Wales?

- 88. Name the northern counties. The southern.
- 89. What large island forms one of the counties of Wales?

90. What is the population of Wales?

SCOTLAND

91. Describe the natural features of Scotland.

92. Name some of the lakes - the islands.

- 93. Into how many counties is Scotland divided? 94. Name the northern counties. The middle. The southern.
- 95. What chain of mountains occupies the north of Scotland?
- 96. What is said of Edinburgh? of Glasgow? Aberdeen? and Greenock?

97. What grain is largely grown in Scotland?98. What are the principal manufactures?

99. Where are they carried on?

100. What are the principal fisheries?

IRELAND.

- 101. Describe the natural features of Ireland.
- 102. Name its principal rivers and lakes.
- 103. What is said of the coast-line?

104. What are the chief exports?

105. Name the four large political divisions of Ireland.

106. How many counties are there?

107. Name those in the province of Leinster-Ulster-Munster -- Connaught,

- 108. What is said of Dublin?
- 109. What is its population?110. Mention the principal seaport and commercial towns.
- 111. What is the established religion?112. How many archbishops and bishops are there in Ireland?
- 113. What manufactures are carried on in the north of Ireland?

FRANCE.

- 114. What is said of the country and the people? The climate. 115. What are the principal mountain ranges?
- 116. Name the chief rivers—the islands.
- 117. Where is the canal of Languedoc situated?
- 118. Mention the wine districts.
- 119. In what manufactures do the French excel?
- 120. How was France divided after the revolution of 1789?
- 121. Mention some of the chief cities.
- 122. Relate what is said of Paris.
- 123. For what manufacture is Lyons celebrated?
- 124. Mention some of the other manufacturing towns.
- 125. What are the chief seaport towns?
- 126. State what you know of the history of France.
- 127. Who was Louis Philippe?
- 128. Who is now the president of France?

RUSSIA.

- 129. What is said of the natural features of Russia?
- 130. Name its largest rivers.
- 131. What form of Government is there in Russia?
- 132. What is said of Siberia? What climate is there in Russia?
- 133. What are the principal towns?
- 134. Relate what is stated of Petersburgh? What is said of Moscow?
- 135. What are the principal means of internal communication?
- 136. What are the chief articles of export from Petersburgh and Odessa?

GERMANY.

- 137. What countries are comprised in Germany?
- 138. Describe its natural features.
- 139. Mention some of the principal vegetable productions.
- 140. Where are the wine and corn districts?
- Name some of the largest rivers.
- 142. What metals does Germany produce? 143. What fabrics are chiefly manufactured?
- 144. For what manufacture is Bohemia celebrated?
- 145. To what towns is the shipping limited?
- 146. What are the seaports on the Adriatic?

- 147. Give the provinces of Austria-of Prussia-of the Minor States - with the names and situation on the chief towns.
- 148. What form of Government is there in Austria? in Prussia?
- 149. Give the Minor States with their respective governments.
- 150. What is meant by the Germanic Confederation?
- 151. State what you know about the Federative diet?
- 152. What districts generally are Protestant? Roman Catholic?

AUSTRIA.

- 153. What countries are comprised in Austria?
- 154. What country in Western Europe formerly belonged to Austria? What is the population of the empire?

155. What is the prevailing form of religion?

156. Describe the geographical position of the Archduchy of Austria. 157. Mention some of the chief cities?

158. Relate what is said of Vienna the capital.

159. What is said of Bohemia and Moravia and their capitals?

160. Describe the natural features of Hungary.

- 161. When did the Hungarians endeavour to throw off their allegiance to Austria?
- 162. What towns form the conjoint capital?
- 163. What are the remarkable salt mines?

164. What portions of Italy belong to Austria?

PRUSSIA AND THE OTHER GERMAN KINGDOMS.

- 165. Name the provinces of Prussia with their chief towns.
- 166. Upon what sea has Prussia a coast line? 167. Name the rivers which traverse Prussia.
- 168. What are the principal exports?
- 169. What are the geographical features of East and West Prussia?
 170. Name some of the largest towns.

- 171. What is the chief article of export from Dantzig? 172. Describe the geographical features of Brandenburgh.
- 173. What renders this province historically remarkable?
- 174. What is the capital of the province? Why is Potsdam remarkable?
- 175. Give the natural features, chief cities, area, and population of Pomerania — of Silesia — of Prussian Saxony.
- 176. Mention the territories which compose the Rhenish provinces.
- 177. What are the geographical features of the country watered by the Rhine and Moselle?
- 178. What is the wine produced on the banks of the Rhine called?
- 179. What is said of Cologne? of Aix-la-chapelle? of Treves? 180. When was the power of the king limited?
- 181. What is the state of education in Prussia?

- 182. What states are united with Prussia in the commercial union?
- 183. What advantage to the states is this union?

BAVARIA.

- 184. By whom and in what year was Bavaria raised to a kingdom?
- 185. What is its population? What is the form of constitution?
- 186. State what is said of Munich, and give its population.
- 187. For what was Nuremberg formerly remarkable?
- 183. Name some other town in the kingdom.

SAXONY.

- 189. By whom, and when, was Saxony created a kingdom?
- 190. What duchy was formerly annexed to it?
- 191. What is said of the people?
- 192. What is the population?

 193. What is the capital, and what is said of it? the population?
- 194. For what is Leipzig remarkable?

WURTEMBFRG.

- 195. Who created it into a kingdom?
- 196. Give its chief cities?
- 197. What is the form of government?
- 198. State the population.

HANOVER.

- 199. Describe its geographical features.
- 200. What mountain chain borders it on the south-east?
- 201. What king of England was elector of this country? Who is now the king?
- 202. What is the amount of population?
- 203. Name the capital and other chief towns.

THE SMALLER GERMAN STATES.

- 204. Mention some of the smaller states.
- 205. State what is said of Baden of Hesse-Cassel of Hesse-Darmstadt - of Brunswick.
- 206. What is said of Weimar? of Nassau, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Mecklenburg-Strelitz? --- of Oldenburg?
- 207. Relate particularly what is said of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.
- 208. What illustrious person is a native of the principality?
- 209. Name the free cities, and relate what is said of each of them?
- 210. Where does the Diet assemble?

SPAIN.

- 211. Name the mountain ridges that traverse the interior.
- 212. In what direction do the mountain chains run?
- 213. What is the nature of the country between the mountain chains?
 214. What is the character of the southern plains?
- 215. What mountains separate France and Spain?
 216. What cause has been assigned for the poverty of the country?
 217. What is the capital? State what is said of it.
- 218. Name the largest trading town of Spain.
- 219. Name the commercial towns.
- 220. From what period may the decline of Spain be dated?
- 221. What possessions remain to Spain in America?
- 222. To what nation does Gibraltar belong? When was it captured?
- 223. Name the Balearic Isles.

PORTUGAL.

- 224. What is said of the position of Portugal? of its surface?
- 225. Name the principal rivers.
- 226. Of what religion are the inhabitants?
- 227. What are the chief exports of the country?
- 228. In what town is the wine trade chiefly carried on?
- 229. With what countries does Portugal principally trade?
- 230. Name the Portuguese colonies. For what is Madeira celebrated?
- 231. Mention the islands in the Atlantic which belong to Portugal.
- 232. What extensive country in South America once belonged to Portugal?

HOLLAND.

- 233. What is the general aspect of the country?
- 234. By what means have the inhabitants encroached upon the bed of the sea?
- 235. What are the means of internal communication?
- 236. When did Holland become independent of Spain?
- 237. When was the kingdom of the Netherlands formed?
- 238. When was Belgium established into a kingdom?
- 239. What is said of Amsterdam? of the Hague? of Rotterdam?
- 240. Name the other large towns.
- 241. For what is the soil remarkable? Name the chief manufactures.
- 242. What fisheries are carried on?
- 243. What is the character given of the inhabitants?

BELGIUM.

- 244. In what respect is Belgium like Holland?
- 245. What are the means of internal communication?
- 246. Who is the present sovereign?247. Name the provinces of Belgium.
- 248. Name its capital and state. What is said of it?
- 249. What manufactures are carried on in the capital?
- 250. For what is Antwerp remarkable?
- 251. State what is said about Ghent, Bruges, Louvain, Mechlin, Liege, Namur, and Ostend.
- 252. For what manufactures is Belgium celebrated?

DENMARK.

- 253. Name the countries which make up the kingdom of Denmark.
- 254. What islands in the Atlantic belong to this kingdom? What portion of America?
- 255. What is the general feature of the country?
- 256. Give the capital, and its situation.
- 257. Mention what is said of this city. What is Elsinore?
- 258. For what is Iceland remarkable?
- 259. Describe the natural features of the country.
- 260. What is the character of the inhabitants?
- 261. Upon what do they depend for food?
- 262. For what is Greenland celebrated?
- 263. Name the Danish possessions in the East and West Indies.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

- 264. What countries comprise the kingdom of Sweden?
- 265. Give a description of the natural features of the country.
- 266. Name the most northern part of the kingdom.
- 267. What is the character of the Laplanders?
- 268. What is their principal article of food?
 269. What mode of conveyance is used in the country?
- 270. Name the three grand political divisions of Sweden. 271. Give the chief towns, and what each is remarkable for.
- 272. State what is said about Stockholm. What is its population?
- 273. In what does the chief wealth of Sweden consist?
- 274. When was Norway united to Sweden?
- 275. Describe the natural features of Norway.
- 276. Name the chief towns. What is the Maëlstrom? 277. How are the inhabitants supplied with food?
- 278. What articles form the chief exports and imports?

SWITZERLAND.

- 279. What is said of the surface of the country?
- 280. What mountain ranges occupy it?

281. Name the highest mountain of the range.

282. Name the principal lakes.

283. What is said of the vegetation of the Swiss vallevs?

284. Name the rivers flowing through Switzerland.

285. What is said of the Swiss character?

286. Name the cantons into which the country is divided.

287. What are the principal towns?

288. Which of them formerly belonged to Prussia?

289. What are the chief exports?

290. What manufactures are carried on?

ITALY.

291. What is said of the surface of the country?

- 292. What mountains bound it on the north?
- 293. What ranges run through the country?

294. State what is said of Vesuvius and Etna.

295. Name the principal rivers.

296. What is said of the city of Naples?
297. What is its population? What is the class called Lazzaroni?

298. Describe the geographical features of Sicily.

299. Mention some of its productions.

300. Name its capital, and give its population.

301. Mention other towns, and state what is said of them. 302. To what kingdom does Sicily belong?

303. What is said of the island of Sardinia? Name its capital

304. Mention the continental possessions of the king of Sardinia. 305. What is said of Turin? of Savoy? of Genoa?

306. Where are the States of the Church, or papal dominions?

307. State fully what is said about Rome. 308. Where is Tuscany situated? What is its ruler styled?

309. For what is Florence celebrated?

310. Describe its natural features. Of Austrian Italy.

311. What are the principal productions?

312. What is said of Milan? Of Venice? 313. Where is the duchy of Lucca situated?

314. For what is the territory distinguished?

315. When and by whom was it made a principality?

316. State what is said of Parma and Placentia. 317. To what territory do they now belong?

318. State what is said of Modena, and give its population.

319. Where is Monaco situated? Under whose protection is it? 320. What are the industrial occupations of the inhabitants?

321. What form of government has San Marino?

322. How are the inhabitants chiefly employed?

323. What offer did Napoleon make to the government?

324. Where is Malta situated? To whom does it belong?

325. To what state does Elba belong? For what is it remarkable?

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

- 326. Describe its geographical features.
- 327. What are the principal mountains?
- 328. Where is the principal part of the Turkish dominions situated?
- 329. Assign the causes for the decline of European Turkey.
- 380. What is the form of government?331. Name the principal provinces.
- 332. What is the capital? and give its situation.
- 333. Give a description of the city.
- 334. Name the other provincial towns.

GREECE.

- 335. Relate what is said of the country.
- 336. How long did the Turks hold the country in subjection?
- 337. When did Greece become independent of Turkey?
- 338. What is the form of government?
- 339. What is the character of the surface of the country?
- 340. Who is the king of Greece?
- 341. Name the capital, and give its population.
- 342. Name some of its ancient, and also some of its modern towns.

THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

- 343. How are they situated with respect to Greece?
- 344. Mention the several islands.
- 345. What is the form of government?
- 346. Under whose protection are the islands?
- 347. What is their general aspect?
- 348. What are the chief productions?

ANDORRE.

- 349. Where is it situated?
- 350. What are its geographical features?
- 351. How is the surface chiefly occupied?
- 352. What is the form of government?

COMMERCIAL MARITIME CITIES AND TOWNS.

- 353. Name those on the shores of the Baltic and its branches.
- 354. Name the maritime towns of England.
- 355. Those of Scotland? Those of Ireland? Those of Spain and Portugal? Those of France, Italy, and Austria? Those of Greece, Turkey, and Russia?

ASTA.

GENERAL GEOGRAPHY.

- Between what degrees of latitude and longitude is the continent situated?
- 2. Give its greatest length, breadth, and area?
- 3. Name the oceans and seas that bound it on the north? east? south? west?

4. How is it separated from Africa?

- State fully what is said of the general aspect of Asia, mentioning its highland and lowland regions.
- 6. In what respects do the northern and southern regions differ?
- Mention its seas, bays, and gulfs, in the Arctic Ocean in the Pacific — in the Indian Ocean.
- Name its straits and channels on the north—east—south—west.
- Give its promontories and capes on the north east south

 — west.
- 10. Name its large peninsulas in the Pacific and Indian Oceans.
- Trace out the island groups on the eastern, southern, and western shores.
- 12. Name the larger islands in the following groups, viz., the Aleutian or Kurile Islands — the islands of Japan — the Philippines — the Laloo — the Moluccas.
- Point out the islands of Formosa, Hainan, and Cevlon.
- 14. In what direction does the great mountain system of Asia run?
- 15. Trace the mountain systems, beginning on the north-east.
- 16. Name the mountain chains which surround and diverge from the great central plateau.
- 17. What mountain ranges are supported upon the great plateau?
- 18. Name the ranges of western and southern Asia.
- 19. Name the countries comprising the central plateau.
- 20. Point out the plateau of Iran—of Arabia—of Anatolia—of the Deccan.
- 21. Point out the regions of active volcanoes.
- 22. Name and point out the most extensive plains in Asia.
- 23. What are the steppes? Name and point them out.
- 24. Trace out the plain of China of Hindostan of Scinde— of Mesopotamia of Pegu of Siam.
- 25. Name and point out the deserts of Asia.
- 26. Name the large rivers falling into the Arctic Ocean into the Indian Ocean and its branches— into the Mediterranean and its branches— into the Caspian Sea.
- 27. Point out the Caspian Lake or Sea, and the Sea or Lake of Aral

- 28. Mention the lakes in Central and Western Asia.
- 29. What is said of the soil, climate, and minerals of Asia?
- 30. Where are diamonds found, and where precious stones?
- 31. Mention some of the principal metals.
- 32. State what is said of the vegetation generally of Asia.
- 33. Into how many botanical regions may the country be divided?
- 34. Over what tract does the first botanical region extend.
- 35. What is said of the climate of this region?
- 36. What country is included in the second region?
- 37. What does the third region comprise?
- 38. What are the forest trees of this region?
- 39. What countries are embraced in the fourth region?
- 40. Describe fully the vegetation of this region.
- 41. What countries comprise the fifth botanical region? Name its forest trees and shrubs; also its grains.
- 42. Which is the most plentiful grain?
- 43. Name the three great animal zones.
- 44. Name the animals of the northern, central, and southern zones.
- 45. Mention some of the birds of prey. Some of the song birds.
- 46. In what countries are parroquets found?
- 47. Mention some of the most important of the domestic animals.
- 48. In what countries are the elephant, camel and reindeer used as domestic animals?
- 49. In what countries are noxious animals found?
- 50. What is said of the insect tribes?
- 51. Name the principal tribes of the human family.
- 52. What tribes belong to the Caucasian race?
- 53. What tribes belong to the Mongolian race?

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

- 54. Mention the different countries of Asia, in the order of their political importance.
- 55. Name the countries comprising the Chinese Empire, and give their capitals.
- 56. What countries are embraced in Russia in Asia?
- 57. Mention their chief towns.
- 58. Name the chief towns of Persia of Beloochistan of Turkestan — of the Ottoman Empire — of Arabia.
- 59. Mention the principal islands, with their chief towns.

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

- 60. Name the three great divisions of which the empire consists.
- 61. In what part of China are Pekin, Nankin, and Canton?
- Name some of the fertile regions of Little Bucharia. The capital.
- 63. Describe the geographical position and features of Thibet.

64. Name some of the large rivers of China.

65. What are the principal natural productions of China?

66. Mention the more important manufactured articles.

- 67. What gave occasion to the war, in 1840, between the English and Chinese?
- 68. What Chinese island belongs to Britain?

69. To what ports have the English access?

70. State what is said of the tea plant.

71. What is said of the amount of population? of the extent of the dominions? of Pekin? of Nankin? of Canton? of the Great Wall and of the Great Canal?

72. What is said about the art of printing? Of literature?

73. By whom were the Scriptures translated into Chinese?

74. Mention what arts the Chinese claim to be the inventors of.

75. What is the religion of the Chinese?

76. In what light is the sovereign regarded?

RUSSIA IN ASIA.

77. Mention the countries comprised in Asiatic Russia.

78. Name the two great governments. The principal cities. 79. What are the chief productions? Name the large rivers.

80. Mention the countries around the Caspian Sea.

81. What mountain ranges traverse these countries?

82. For what are the Circassians celebrated?

83. From what nation has most of the Russian territory been conauered?

INDIA PROPER.

84. Name the grand natural divisions of India.

85. What is comprised in the northern divisions? Describe its geographical features.

86. Name the finest and most populous region of India.

87. By what rivers is it watered?

88. What geographical figure is the southern portion of India?

89. Name the hills which run through this portion.

90. How are the eastern and western coasts distinguished?

91. What table lands are in the interior?

92. What are the most important productions of the southern part?

93. Name the mountain territories of Hindostan: their capitals.

94. Give the following territories, with their capitals, viz., the Gangetic—the Sindetic—the central—and the southern? 95. Mention the British provinces in the Eastern Peninsula.

96. Give the provinces of the Birman Empire. The Malay states?

97. What is said of the natural features of the country?

98. Name the most important productions.

99. Relate what is said of the character of the Hindoos.

- 100. What do they worship, what is said of their religious practices?
- 101. Mention the castes into which the Hindoos are divided?
- 102. How is British India divided?
- 103. What is said of the presidency of Bengal?
- 104. What is its chief city? State fully what is said of it and other large towns.
- 105. Where are the finest muslins manufactured?
- 106. State what districts are comprised in the Presidency of Madras.
- 107. What town is the chief seat of the manufactures of calicos and ginghams?
- 108. What districts comprise the Presidency of Bombay?
- 109. State the position of Bombay, and for what the city is remarkable. Name other large towns in this presidency.
- 110. Who are the Seikhs? Who was their celebrated chief?
- 111. For what manufacture is Cashmere famous?
- 112. To whose dominions has the Seikh territory been annexed?
- 113. Give the geographical features of the Sinde territory.
- 114. What was the character of its rulers?
- 115. To whom does the territory now belong? Give its chief towns?
- 116. Name the India powers held in vassalage by Britain.
- 117. Where is Mysore situated? What are its chief towns? 118. Mention some of the other dependencies of Britain.
- 119. What territory is held by the Rajpoot chiefs?
- 120. What is the character given of the natives?
- 121. Mention the powers independent of Britain.
- 122. What is said of Scindiah? Name the capital.
- 123. State the geographical position and features of Nepaul.
- 124. What is said of the people and of the king? What is the capital of the territory?
- 125. How is British India ruled?
- 126. What are the native soldiers called?
- 127. What is said about the trade of India?
- 128. What are their valuable productions?
- 129. What is said of Ceylon? To whom does it belong?
- 130. Name its capital, and its other large towns.
- 131. What remarkable spice does it produce? Mention another article of commerce the island produces in abundance.
- 132. What large wild animals are found here?
- 133. For what is the sea between it and the continent celebrated?

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- 134. What countries are comprehended under this general name?
- 135. When were the British territories obtained?
- 136. Name the countries of which they consist.
- 137. What is said of the general aspect of the country?
- 138. In what country are there forests of the tea plant?



- 139. Where is Sincapore situated? For what is it remarkable?
- 140. Mention some commercial towns founded by Britain.
- 141. What territories compose the Birman empire?

142. By what large river is the empire traversed?

143. What valuable timber is produced?

144. What is the present capital, and what the former?

145. Where is the principal trade carried on?146. Describe the geographical features of Siam.

147. What people conducts the cultivation and trade? 148. For what is Bankok, the capital, remarkable?

149. For what is Siam celebrated?

150. Name the countries which have recently been subjected to Cochin China, or Anam.

151. Name the principal river in the country.

152. What gums are yielded by the forest trees?

153. Mention the most fertile and populous of these countries.

154. Point out the geographical position of the Andaman and Nicobar islands, and state what is said of them.

PERSIA.

- 155. What are the great divisions of Persia? The chief towns?
- 156. Describe the geographical features of Western Persia.
- 157. How is the trade carried on between Turkey and India?

158. What are the most valuable products of Persia?

159. For what are the Persians distinguished?

160. What is said of the aspect of the country and of the people?

161. Relate what is said about Shah Shujah - Runjeet Singh - the Shah of Persia.

162. State fully what is said about the invasion of the country of the British army and the causes which led to this circum-

163. When did the British army enter, and when did it finally leave the country?

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

164. For what is this region celebrated?

165. What are the geographical features of the country?

166. What animals are chiefly reared?

167. Name the large rivers, and the sea into which they flow.

168. Name the chief divisions of Independent Tartary.

169. State what is said about Great Bucharia. Name the capital

170. Point out the position of Khiva, and give its former name.

171. Who claims sovereignty over the desert?

172. Relate minutely what is said of the Turcoman tribes.

173. What tracts are occupied by the Kirgishes? What is their character?

ASIATIC TURKEY.

- 174. Of what countries is it composed?
- 175. What is their present state under Turkish government?
- 176. Name the principal divisions of the empire.
- 177. By whom are these divisions governed?
- 178. When and by whom were the Egyptian forces expelled?
- 179. Mention the principal mountains, rivers, and lakes.
- 180. Describe the geographical features of Asia Minor.
- 181. Name its capital, and its principal exports.
- 182. What is said of Balbec and Palmyra?
- 183. For what is Palestine particularly distinguished?
- 184. What is said of its geographical features?
- 185. Describe the situation of Jerusalem, and state minutely what is said of it.
- 186: Give a description of the Valley of Jehoshaphat.
- 187. Describe the position of Mount Moriah and Mount Zion.
- 188. Name the four hills upon which Jerusalem was built.
- 189. What building now stands upon the site of the temple? 190. In whose writings do we find a pretty full account of Palestine
- and the city of Jerusalem? 191. What city is considered the bulwark of Syria, and for what is
- it famous? What is said of Jaffa and Nablous?
- 192. Point out Armenia. What districts are included within it?
- 193. What is the character of the tribes inhabiting these districts?
- 194. Where are the remains of the ancient Nineveh?
- 195. What is said of Babylon and of Bagdad?
- 196. At what city is the foreign trade carried on?

ARABIA.

- 197. Describe its geographical features.
- 198. What is the character of its inhabitants?
- 199. What is the nature of the climate?
- 200. How do travellers guide themselves through the deserts?
- 201. For what are the cities of Mecca and Medina celebrated?
- 202. Point out the position of Mount Sinai and Mount Horeb.
- 203. Where is the wilderness through which the children of Israel wandered?
- 204. For what vegetable production is Yemen celebrated?
- 205. Name its capital, and the other commercial towns.
- 206. What town belongs to Britain?207. What are the common beasts of burden? Name the exports.
- 208. Give the general character of the Arabs. What sort of life do they lead? How are they dressed, and governed?

JAPAN.

- 209. Point out the islands of Japan, and name the largest of them.
- 210. What European nation do the Japanese allow to trade with them?

- 211. Name the capital and state. What is said of it and Meaco?
- 212. For what manufactured articles is Japan celebrated?
- 213. What is said of the climate, the face of the country?
- 214. Why is the country not better known?

THE ORIENTAL ARCHIPELAGO.

215. Point out the islands comprised in this group.

- 216. Describe their geographical features, and name some of their productions.
- 217. Of what races are the inhabitants?

218. To what European nation does Java belong?

- 219. What is said of the island of Sumatra, and its inhabitants?
- 220. Give the native states and the principal Dutch settlements.
- 221. For what productions is Sumatra celebrated?

222. State fully what is said of Borneo.

- 223. Point out Sarawak. What is said of Sir James Brooke.
- 224. Name an island off the coast belonging to Britain.
- 225. Point out Celebes. What is the character of its inhabitants?

226. What islands are called the Spice Islands?

- 227. To which island is the culture of the clove confined?
- 228. Point out the Philippines, and name their capital.
- 229. What is the principal manufacture, and where is it carried on?

AFRICA.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

- Between what parallels and degrees of longitude is this continent situated?
- Give its greatest length and breadth, and the points between which the measurements are taken. What is its area?
- 3. Give its boundaries on the north, south, east, and west.
- 4. What is said of the coast line?
- 5. Name the mountain ranges on the north.
- 6. What are the geographical features of the continent to the south of the twelfth parallel?
- 7. What is said of the water communication?
- 8. Point out the seas, bays, and gulfs on the east, on the west and on the north.
- Name and point out the straits and promontories on the north, on the east, and on the west.
- Name and point out the islands belonging to Africa in the Indian Ocean, in the Atlantic, and in the Mediterranean.

- 11. Trace out the Great and Little Atlas, the mountains of Kong. the mountains of Abyssinia, and the mountains of Lupata.
- 12. Name the mountains at the south of the continent.
- 13. What is said about the table-lands?
- 14. Point out the great African plain, and state what is said of it.
- 15. Name and point out the most remarkable deserts.
- 16. Relate fully what is said of the Sahara.
- 17. Name and trace the course of the rivers falling into the Mediterranean, into the Atlantic, and into the Indian Oceans.
- 18. Name the large freshwater and salt lakes.
- 19. What is said of the soil and climate of Africa?
- 20. What cause has been assigned for its high temperature?
- 21. Name the most important minerals.
- 22. What metal is generally diffused throughout the continent?
- 23. Name the largest of the forest trees, and the plants which are generally diffused throughout the continent.
- 24. What animals inhabit the northern, central, and southern regions?
- 25. Where is the ostrich found?
- 26. By what birds are the rivers and lakes frequented?
- 27. What kind of reptiles are the most numerous?
 28. Name the seven different races of men.
- 29. What regions are inhabited by the negroes properly so called?

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

- 30. Why can we not obtain an accurate arrangement of the political divisions?
- 31. Point out the northern, central, southern, eastern, and western states. Give their chief towns.

EGYPT.

- 32. Of what does Egypt consist? How is it bounded?
- 33. What are the three grand divisions of the country?
- 34. State for what this country is particularly remarkable?
- 35. What are the pyramids? When were they built? What is the size of the largest?
- 36. Name the capital, also the ports, and the principal ruins.

BARBARY.

- 37. Trace out its boundaries, and name the states included in it.
- 38. What is said of the aspect of the country?
- 39. What European power is now in possession of Algiers?
- 40. What is this nation at present endeavouring to do?
- 41. Name the other chief towns.

ABYSSINIA.

42. Where is this country situated?

43. Describe its geographical features.

44. By what race has the country been overrun?

45. What is said of the habits of this race?
46. What city and provinces do they possess?

47. Where are the native governments situated?

47. Where are the native governments situated

NUBIA.

48. Point out this country. By what river is it watered?
49. What is said about the rocks on the banks of the river?

50. What is the character of the people?

51. Name the principal states.

52. By whom were these states lately conquered?

CENTRAL AFRICA.

53. Of what regions is it composed?

54. What mountain ranges cross it? What rivers rise in it?

55. What is the character of the soil?

56. Name the two principal states. Point out Bornou.

57. From what countries are slaves obtained? Where are they sold, and to whom?

58. By whom were the countries on the lower Niger recently explored?

59. When did this traveller die, and what was the cause of his death?

60. Describe the natural features of this region.
61. What large river rolls through this region?

62. Name the capital. What is said of the territory?

63. For what is Timbuctoo celebrated? Point out Bambarra,

64. How is gold procured? How is the internal trade carried on?

65. Point out the countries along the western coast.

66. Where are the French settlements?

67. What are the principal exports? What is said of the climate?

68. Name the Portuguese settlements.

69. Name the principal states. By what race were many of them ravaged? Name the islands along the coast.

70. Where is Sierra Leone situated?

BRITISH COLONIES IN AFRICA.

71. Point out the Cape of Good Hope, or Cape Colony.

72. Of what tribes is the population made up?

73. Describe the natural features of the kingdom.

74. What is the chief branch of rural industry? What is said of the fisheries? Name the chief ports. 75. Name the districts in the south-west-on the south coastthe north-west—the interior.

76. Of what districts are Graham's Town and Fredericksburg the capitals?

77. Name the wine and corn-growing districts.

78. When did the Dutch found a colony in South Africa? When was it taken by the British? Point out Natal.

79. Describe its natural features. What is said of the climate? Name the principal products. What are the chief exports? How is the state governed? Name the capital of the colony.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

80. Name the largest island, and give its length and breadth.

81. Point out Bourbon. To what nation does it belong?

82. To what nation does the Isle of France belong?

83. Point out St. Helena. To what nation does it belong, and for what is it remarkable? Where is Ascension?

84. Where are the Cape Verde Isles? To what nation do they belong, and what are their products?

85. Point out the Canary Isles. For what is Teneriffe remarkable?

86. For what is Madeira particularly celebrated?

AMERICA.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

1. Between what meridians and parallels is the continent situated?

2. Give its greatest length and breadth.

- 3. Name the seas and oceans that wash the continent on the north. east, south, and west,
- 4. When and by whom was the continent discovered?

5. How came the continent to be called America?

Describe its general aspect.

7. Name the five regions into which the surface of both North and South America may be divided.

8. Name the seas, bays, and gulfs in the Arctic Ocean - on the Atlantic Coast - in the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea -- on the east coast of South America, and on the west coast - on the west coast of North America.

9. Name the straits and channels on the north, east, south, and

west: also the promontories and capes.



- 10. State what is said of the maritime districts.
- Name the peninsulas and islands on the northern, eastern, and western shores.
- 12. Give the ranges of North America, of South America, and of the islands. The most remarkable of the table lands.
- 13. Name the principal volcanoes, and point out their position.
- 14. Name and trace out the most extensive plains.
- 15. Shew where the principal valleys and deserts are situated.
- 16. What is said of the American rivers?
- Name those that fall into the Arctic Ocean—those of North America that fall into the Atlantic.
- 18. Trace the course of the Mississippi and Amazon. Give their length, and name some of their tributaries.
- 19. Name the largest of the North and South American lakes.
- 20. What regions of North and South America are the most fertile?
- 21. What is said about the minerals? What metals are found in considerable quantities?
- 22. What is said of the forests and of the forest trees?
- 23. Name the principal productions.
- 24. Name the wild animals of North and South America.
- 25. What is said about the birds? Name the principal birds of prev.
- 26. What is said about the vampire bat? Name the reptiles.
- 27. Name some of the largest, also some of the more venomous.
- 28. Mention the domestic animals, and the most numerous of them.
- 29. What is said about the fishes?
- 30. What animals abound in the tropical rivers? Where is the gymnotus, or electric eel, found?
- 31. Name the principal fisheries. Point out their locality.
- 32. Describe the peculiarities of the American race.
- By what nations in the Old World have the United States, Canada, and Pennsylvania been colonised.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

- 34. Give the states, territories, and colonies of North America, with the capitals; also the population of the continent.
- 35. Name the West India Islands, with their capitals, and the European nations to whom they belong.
- Name the subdivisions of Columbia and Guiana, and give their chief towns.
- 37. Name the other states of South America, with their chief towns.
- 38. Trace upon the map the boundaries of each state, and point out the position of each capital.

THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

39. Name and point out these possessions upon the map.

40. Describe the geographical features of Lower Canada, how is it situated with respect to the river St. Lawrence?

- 41. From what European nation are the inhabitants descended?
- 42. Name the chief towns, and state what is said about them.
- 43. Trace out Upper Canada. What is said of it?
- 44. What are the principal exports? What are the principal means of internal communication?
- 45. Describe the geographical features of Nova Scotia.
- 46. What is said of the fishery? And of the timber trade?
- 47. Describe the aspect of New Brunswick. Give its capital.
- 48. What is said about the general appearance of Newfoundland?
- 49. For what fisheries is the country celebrated?
- 50. Name the capital. For what is it remarkable?
- 51. Where are the Bermudas situated, and for what are they famed?
- 52. Point out the colony of Belisle, or Belize, and its capital.
- 53. Point out Russian America, and trace out its boundaries.
- 54. What trade is chiefly carried on in this territory?
- 55. Point out Greenland. To what European nation does it belong?
- 56. Of what race are the natives, and how are they chiefly employed?

THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

- 57. Point out these states, and give their boundaries.
- 58. From what European nation were they chiefly colonised?
- 59. When did these colonies become independent?
- 60. Mention the principal exports.
- 61. How is the republic of the United States governed?
- 62. What is the "Congress," and where is it held?
- 63. Name the northern states—the midland states—the southern, and the western with their chief towns.
- 64. Name the territories and districts, and give the capital of the republic and its situation.
- 65. Which is the largest city in the United States?
- 66. Mention some of the other large towns, and state particularly what is said of New Orleans, Cincinnati, and Washington.

THE NATIVE TRIBES OF NORTH AMERICA.

- 67. Point out the districts occupied by the native tribes.
- 68. What articles of commerce are collected from the Indians?
- 69. Point out the regions inhabited by the Esquimaux?
- 70. Name some of the islands in the Arctic Ocean discovered by Captain Parry. What is said of their climate?

MEXICAN CONFEDERATION.

- 71. What states are comprised in this confederation?
- 72. Describe the geographical features of Mexico, and mention the active volcanoes in it.
- 73. For what vegetable productions is the country fitted?

CENTRAL AMERICA.

- 74. What states are included under this term?
- 75. Describe the aspect of the country.
- 76. What is said of the volcanic regions and of the climate?
- 77. Name the principal cities.
- 78. What are the chief products of the Republic?
- 79. Where is the Mosquito territory situated?
- 80. What are its geographical features?
 81. Name the chief towns. What is said about Bluefields?
- 82. What events occurred in the territory in 1848?

THE WEST INDIES.

- 83. Point out their position and give their subdivisions.
- 84. Trace out the greater and lesser Antilles.
- 85. Name the largest of the group, and state to what European nation it belongs.
- 86. Point out Hayti and give its other names.
- 87. Point out Jamaica. Name its chief town and the principal productions.
- 88. In the smaller Antilles, point out the islands that belong to England, France, Denmark, Holland, and Sweden.
- 89. To what nations do the Bahamas and Curaçoa belong?
- 90. Give the principal productions of these islands.

SOUTH AMERICA.

- 91. What is the geographical figure of this continent?
- 92. For what is the continent particularly distinguished?
- 93. What mountain chain extends along its western side?
- 94. What large rivers flow through it?
- 95. Name the loftiest peaks and volcanoes.
- 96. What is said of the plains and of the mines?
- 97. What European nation conquered the finest regions.
- 98. Name and point out the most important of the republics.
- 99. Of what is the eastern portion composed? What is said of it? 100. For what product is the country distinguished?
- 101. Mention the parts into which Columbia has been split.
- 102. Point out Guiana, and name and trace out the English, Dutch, and French colonies.
- 103. What precious minerals are found in Brazil?
- 104. How is the country at present governed?
- 105. Name the capital, and other large towns. Point out Peru.
- 106. What is said of the eastern districts? Where are the mines? 107. What is the capital, and how is its foreign trade carried on?
- 108. Why was Bolivia so named? When was its liberation effected?

109. What are the remarkable plains?

110. What are the pampas, what animals are reared upon them?

111. Name the capital, and the other large towns.

112. Where is Paraguay? For what is this country celebrated?

113. Point out Uruguay. Name and point out its capital.

114. Point out Chili, and relate what is said of its natural features. 115. What mines does it contain? What is said of industry?

116. Point out the capital and the chief trading towns.

117. Point out Patagonia. What is said of Terra del Fuego?

AUSTRALIA.

118. Point it out upon the map.

- 119. Under whose dominion is it?
- 120. What is its size compared with that of Europe? 121. Describe its natural features.

122. What was the first colony? and point out its locality.

123. Name its chief towns, mountains, and rivers.

124. When was the settlement founded, and for what purpose?

125. Point out Port Philip, and state fully what is said of it.

126. Point out the colony of South Australia. 127. Mention its vegetable and mineral productions. Its chief town.

128. Point out Western Australia. When was it founded?

129. Point out Port Essington, and state what is said of its climate?

130. Where is Norfolk Island, and for what purpose is it used?

131. Point out Van Diemen's land, and give its other name.
132. What is the nature of the climate, and of the soil?

133. What is the chief river? Name and point out the capital.

134. Name the islands which compose New Zealand.

135. What character is given of the natives?

136. Name the principal towns that have been founded.

137. Relate what is said of the Canterbury Association.

138. Name the islands to the north and north-east of Australia.

POLYNESIA.

139. What islands are comprehended under this term?

140. Name the principal island groups.

141. In what group is Otaheite? 142. For what are its inhabitants remarkable?

143. Point out the Friendly Isles.

144. Point out the Marquesas and the Sandwich Islands.

145. For what is this island particularly remarkable?

146. Point out the Caroline Islands, and name the principal of them.

147. Trace out the groups to the north and east of them.

148. Point out the Ladrone or Marianno Islands. **¥3**

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

- 1. What is the general direction of mountain systems in the Old and the New World?
- Trace out the mountain systems of Asia, commencing on the north-western shore of the continent.
- Name the mountain chains that surround the great central table land.
- 4. Name the mountains of Western Asia.
- 5. Trace out the ranges of Southern Europe.
- 6. Trace out the detached mountain systems of Asia and Europe.
- 7. Point out and name the African mountain ranges.
- Trace the mountain chains of North and South America, and name and point out the detached ranges.
- 9. Point out some of the most remarkable insular mountain ranges.

TABLE LANDS, OR PLATEAUS.

- Name, point out, and give the mean elevation, of the most remarkable table lands in Asia, Europe, Africa, and America.
- Trace out the volcanic districts of each of the great continents, and of the island groups.
- 12. Name the principal active volcanoes in the Old and New World.
- 13. What are the two different kinds of earthquakes?
- 14. Point out the districts in Europe recently visited by earthquakes.
- Name and point out some of the highest mountains in Europe,
 Asia, Africa, America, and the Australian continent,
- 16. Name some of the highest altitudes reached by man,
- Name and point out some of the principal lowland plains in each
 of the great continents.
- 18. Name and point out some of the most remarkable valleys in the Old and New World.

DESERTS.

19. Point out those of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia, and state what is said about them.

RIVERS AND LAKES.

- 20. Define the term river, and explain how rivers are formed.
- 21. Explain the terms basin water-parting, or water-shed bifurcation upper, middle, and lower courses of rivers.
- Explain the term development of a river, also the different kinds of waterfalls.

- 23. What are tidal rivers? What is the bore?
- 24. Upon what does the magnitude of rivers depend?
- 25. What are continental, and what oceanic rivers?
- 26. What is said of the Atlantic and Pacific as the recipients of rivers?
- 27. Explain how deltas are formed.

RIVER SYSTEMS.

- 28. How may rivers be classified?
- 29. Compare the river systems of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.
- Trace the course of the largest rivers in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.
- 31. State what is said of rivers in the Torrid and the Temperate Zones.
- 32. Name the larger rivers of the great continents, the countries through which they flow, where they rise, the seas into which they fall, and their mean length.
- Name the principal lakes in the Old and New World, and give their area in square miles.

THE OCEAN.

- 34. What are its chief chemical and physical properties?
- 35. Account for its difference of colour.
- 36. What is said of its temperature, depth, and level?
- 37. How are waves produced? Explain the difference between the sea-wave and the tide-wave.
- 38. How are tides produced, and how often do they occur?
- 39. What is meant by the ebb and flow of the tide?
- 40. Explain how spring and neap tides are produced.
 41. Trace the progress of the tide-wave in the Pacific, Indian, and Atlantic Oceans, and around the British Islands.
- 42. How are currents produced in the ocean?
- 43. Name, and trace out upon the map, the principal currents in the Pacific. Indian, and Atlantic Oceans.
- 44. Trace the course of the gulf-stream.
- 45. Trace out this current upon the map.

THE ATMOSPHERE.

- 46. Of what gases is it composed, and in what proportions are these gases found?
- 47. Mention some of the uses of the atmosphere, in the general economy of Nature.
- 48. What is its pressure upon every square inch of the earth's surface?
- 49. At what height does it cease to refract the rays of light?
- 50. Explain the causes of wind. How may they be classified?

 Point out the region of the trade winds, and explain how they are produced.

52. Point out the regions visited by the monsoons, and explain why they shift from one side of the equator to the other.

53. Point out the regions of the variable winds.

54. Account for land and sea breezes. Name the principal winds.

55. Name the terms that have been applied to violent rotatory movements of the atmosphere.

56. Point out the regions visited by hurricanes and by typhoons.

57. Where is the region of calms?

58. How is evaporation from the earth's surface caused?
59. In what form is vapour suspended in the atmosphere?

60. What is the dew-point, dew, and white frost?

61. Explain the formation of fogs, clouds, and rain.

62. Relate what is said of the tropical rains.

63. Point out the rainless districts.

64. State fully what is said about the fall of rain in certain parts of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.

65. What is the mean annual quantity of rain in Calcutta, Rome, Paris, London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Petersburgh? Give the relative quantity of rain in Europe.

 Give the proportional quantities of rain in Europe in the different seasons.

67. What is the Aurora Borealis, and relate what is said about it?

68. What is the chief cause of the difference of temperature upon the earth's surface? Point out the hottest regions.

69. Trace out the different zones, and give the breadth of each.

70. Explain the meaning of the term snow line.

71. What is meant by "climate?" and mention the causes which determine it?

 Explain fully how each of the causes alluded to influences the climate of a country.

73. What are isothermal, isotheral, and isochimenal lines?

74. How may they be laid down upon a map?

75. Name and point out some of the coldest, and also some of the hottest countries.

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

76. Into what three great classes is the vegetable kingdom divided?

· 77. Name some of the plants that belong to each class.

78. Name and trace out the limits of the vegetation zones.

79. Mention some of the plants in each zone.

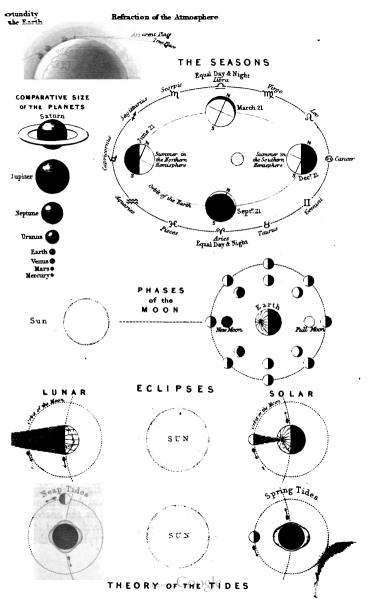
80. Name the different classes of animals.

- 81. Give the subdivisions of the class mammalia.
- 82. Mention the different races of mankind.
- 83. How many languages are said to be spoken.
- 84. What languages are the most polite and cultivated in Europe.
- 85. Mention the most widely diffused languages.
- 86. What are the different religions professed by mankind?
- 87. Name the different churches professing Christianity.
- 88. What nations profess Mahomedanism?
- 89. Of what religion are the inhabitants of most of the Asiatic and Pacific islands?
- 90. Mention some of the different forms of government.
- 91. What is a monarchy? What is a republic?
- Mention the three grand classes into which all natural productions are arranged.
- 93. What is meant by the exports of a country, and what by imports?
- Give the exports of England, of Wales, of Scotland, of Ireland of France, Switzerland, Belgium, and Holland.
- 95. What are the exports of Germany, of the Austrian Empire, of Prussia, of Denmark and her dependencies, of Sweden and Norway, of Russia, of Spain, of Portugal, of Italy, of Sicily, of Turkey, and of Greece?
- 96. Give the exports of Asiatic Turkey, of Arabia, of Persia, of India, of China, and of Asiatic Russia.
- 97. Name the chief exports of Africa.
- 98. What are the chief exports of Canada, and of the United States of North America?
- 99. Mention the exports of the West India Islands.
- 100. Give the exports of the principal states of South America.
- 101. What articles are obtained from Oceanica and Polynesia, particularly Australia?

ASTRONOMY.

1. THE term ASTRONOMY denotes the nomos or law. which governs the astra, or heavenly bodies. Its object is to investigate the magnitudes, distances, mutual relations, and motions, real or apparent, of all the visible bodies of the heavens. This wide field of inquiry has suggested a division of the subject into descriptive, physical, and practical astronomy. 1. "Descriptive astronomy demonstrates the magnitudes, distances, and densities of the heavenly bodies, and explains the phenomena dependent on their motions, as the change of seasons, and the vicissitudes of day and night. 2. Physical astronomy explains the theory of planetary motion, and the laws by which this motion is regulated and sustained. 3. Practical astronomy details the description and use of astronomical instruments, and developes the nature and application of astronomical calculations. The heavenly bodies are divided into three distinct classes, or systems, viz. the solar system, consisting of the sun, moon, and planets: the system of the fixed stars; and the system of the comets.

2. Systems of astronomy.—There are several celebrated systems, or hypotheses, for explaining the phenomena of the heavenly bodies. The principle of these are the Ptolemaic, the Copernican, and the Tychonic. 1. The Ptolemaic system was so named from the famous geographer Claudius Ptolemæus, who flourished in Egypt during the reigns of the Roman emperors Hadrian and Antoninus Pius. He taught that the earth was at rest in the centre of the universe, and that the heavens revolved round it, from east to west, in twenty-four hours, carrying all the



heavenly bodies with them. This system was believed." and enjoyed an undisputed celebrity, for 1400 years. 2. The Copernican system derives its name from Nicholas Copernicus, who was born A. D. 1473, at Thorn in Prussia. He taught, as Pythagoras had taught before him, that the sun occupied the centre of the universe, and that the planets moved round him in elliptical orbits proportioned to their size. This system was established by the new arguments and discoveries of Galileo, Kepler, and Newton. The great principle on which it rests is gravity, or that force in nature by which all the planets are attracted to the centre of their respective orbits. 3. The Tychonic system was so named from Tycho Brahe, a noble Dane, who was born A.D. 1546, and who partly restored the system of Ptolemy concerning the earth remaining at rest, whilst the other heavenly bodies moved round it. He taught, however, that the moon performed a monthly revolution round the earth; that the sun was the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, which revolve round him in their respective periods, as he revolves round the earth in a solar year; and, accordingly, that these five planets, together with the sun, are carried round the earth in twenty-four hours. Of these systems, the Copernican is now adopted, as furnishing the most easy and obvious explanation of the various phenomena of the heavenly bodies.

THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

- 3. The Solar System consists of the Sun, from which it takes its name; eleven Primary Planets; eighteen Secondary Planets or Satellites; and an unknown number of Comets.
- 4. The Sun, the great source of light and heat to the planetary bodies, is nearly 95 millions of miles distant from the Earth; his diameter is 111½ times the diameter of the Earth, or upwards of 882 thousand miles; consequently his magnitude is upwards of 1,384,000 times that

of the Earth. His density is about one quarter that of the Earth; and a body which weighs one pound at the surface of the Earth, would weigh 28 pounds if carried to the surface of the Sun.

5. On examining the solar disc with the telescope, it is sometimes seen to be partially covered by dark spots, differing from one another in form and magnitude. These spots move from east to west across the disc of the Sun, and seem to be confined to a region not extending more than about 30° from his equator; some of them have been observed so large as to exceed the earth four or five times in size. The period of their apparent revolution is about 25½ days; whence as they are supposed to belong to the solar atmosphere, it is concluded that the Sun revolves on its axis, and that the period of rotation is 25½ days.

THE PRIMARY PLANETS.

- 6. The Primary Planets are those which revolve about the Sun as a centre. They are eighteen in number; their order in the system, their names, and the symbols by which they are denoted, being as follows: - Mercury &, Venus 2, the Earth ⊕, or 5, Mars 3, Vesta ♠, Juno \$, Ceres ?, Pallas ?, Astræa P, Iris Flora ?, Metis o, Hebe U, Hygeia (its symbol has not been fixed), Jupiter 4, Saturn b, Uranus HI called also Herschel and Georgium Sidus. Neptune Ψ , Parthenope (symbol not fixed), and Victoria . Six of these, namely, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, have been known from the remotest ages; the other twelve have been discovered in modern times, and are only visible in the They all revolve about the Sun in the same direction, that is, from west to east, in orbits nearly circular, and all situated within a narrow zone of the heavens.
- 7. The following table exhibits the diameters of the respective planets, their distances from the sun, the periods

of their revolutions on their own axes, and those of their revolutions round the sun:

SYNOPTIC TABLE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT ELEMENTS OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Bodies.	Mean Dia- meter in English Miles.	Distances from the Sun in English Miles.	Time of Sidereal Rotation.	Time of performing a Sidereal Revolu- tion about the Sun.
			D. H. M. S.	D. H. M. S.
Mercury &	3,150	36,000,000	0 24 5 28	87 23 15 44
Venus Q	7,718	68,000,000	0 23 21 7	224 16 49 8
Earth \oplus	7,916	95,000,000	0 24 0 0	365 6 9 12 1
Earth ⊕ Mars ♂ Jupiter ¥	4,093	142,000,000	0 24 39 21	686 23 30 41
Jupiter Y	85,968	485,000,000	0 9 55 50	4.332 14 2 8
Saturn b	79,013	890,000,000	0 10 29 17	10,759 5 16 32 4
Uranus H	34.292	1,800,000,000	0 9 30 0	30,686 19 41 59
Neptune ()	42,000	2,898,000,000	unknown.	63,000 0 0 0

The Moon's diameter is 2160 English miles, her mean distance from the Earth 237,519, and the period of her revolution 27 d. 7 h. 43 m. 5 s. The Moon turns round her axis in the same time that she revolves in her orbit round the Earth.

8. Mercury is the planet nearest to the Sun, his mean distance from the Sun being about 36 millions of miles. He performs his revolution in rather less than 96 days; and his rotation on his axis is supposed to be performed in about 24 hours, $5\frac{1}{2}$ minutes. His diameter is only 3140 miles, and his magnitude about one-sixteenth part of that of the earth; the greatest apparent distance of Mercury from the Sun never exceeds 28° 48′, in consequence of which he can very rarely be seen with the naked eye in our climates.

9. Venus, the next in order, revolves at the mean distance of 68 millions of miles from the Sun; the time of her revolution is $224\frac{7}{10}$ days, and the length of her day, or her time of rotation, 23 hours, 21 minutes, 7 seconds; her diameter is 7700 miles, and her magnitude about nine-tenths of that of the Earth. Venus is alternately the morning and evening star. In the telescope she sometimes appears horned, sometimes gibbous, like the Moon.

- 10. Mercury and Venus are called *inferior* planets, because their orbits are enclosed in that of the Earth. The others are called *superior* planets, because their orbits enclose the orbit of the Earth.
- 11. The Earth. It was proved by Copernicus, who died in 1543, that the Earth is also a planet, the third in order from the Sun; and that the celestial motions which we observe are only apparent, and arise from the motion of the Earth in its orbit, and its rotation about its own axis. The mean distance of the Earth from the Sun is 95 millions of miles, and its revolution is performed in nearly 3651 days; so that the velocity with which it moves is about 19 miles in a second. The Earth is not a perfect sphere, being a little flattened at the poles; its mean diameter is 7926 miles. The axis of the Earth is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic, or plane in which the annual motion is performed, whence the equator does not coincide with the ecliptic; the two planes make with each other an angle of about 231 degrees. If the equator coincided with the ecliptic, the heat and cold in each part of the Earth would be the same throughout the whole year. fact. however, the northern part of our globe inclines towards the Sun during one half of the year, and the southern part during the other half. By this simple arrangement, the Earth, while revolving in its orbit, and presenting itself differently to the Sun, at different times of the year and day, undergoes all the gradations of heat and cold, the varieties of day and night, and the grateful succession of the seasons.

12. Mars revolves at the distance of 142 millions of miles from the Sun; his revolution is performed in about 687 days, and his rotation on his axis in 24 hours 39½ minutes; his diameter is only 4100 miles, or little more than half the diameter of our Earth. He is easily distinguished by his dull red appearance.

13. Vesta, Juno, Ceres, Pallas, Astræa, Iris and Flora are very small planets, and are never visible excepting through a good telescope. Their mean distances from the Sun, and their times of revolution, are nearly the same.

Vesta is rather nearest the Sun, her mean distance being about 225 millions of miles; the mean distance of Pallas, the most remote, is 260 millions of miles. The time in which each performs its revolution is nearly as follows:—Vesta 1325 days, Juno 1592 days; Ceres 1681 days; Pallas 1686 days; Astræa 1513 days. Their diameters, by reason of their smallness, cannot be determined with certainty. Ceres was discovered in 1801, Pallas in 1802, Juno in 1804, Vesta in 1807, Astræa in 1845, Hebe, Iris and Flora in 1847. Metis in 1849, and Hygeia in 1849.

14. Jupiter. The mean distance of this planet from the Sun is above 485 millions of miles, and the time of his revolution 4332 days or nearly 12 years. The length of his day is only 9 hours and 56 minutes. Jupiter is the largest of all the planets. His diameter is nearly 11 times that of the Earth, being about 86,000 miles; and his magnitude is 1280 times that of the Earth.

15. Saturn revolves at the distance of 890 millions of miles from the Sun, which is about $9\frac{1}{2}$ times the distance of the Sun from the Earth. His revolution is accomplished in about $29\frac{1}{2}$ years. The rotation on his axis is, like that of Jupiter, very rapid, being performed in 10 hours $29\frac{1}{2}$ minutes. His diameter is nearly ten times and his magnitude 995 times that of the Earth. Alone of all the planets he is surrounded by a double ring, very thin and broad.

16. Uranus, discovered by Sir W. Herschel in 1781, is 1800 millions of miles in mean distance from the Sun, or 19 times that of the Sun from the Earth. The period of his revolution is 84 years; of his rotation 9 h. 30 m. His magnitude is 80 times that of the Earth.

17. Uranus was regarded as the most remote body in the solar system till 1846, when one of the noblest triumphs of astronomical science was achieved by the discovery of *Neptune*, at a distance from the Sun nearly twice that of Uranus. His diameter is 42,000 miles, and his period of revolution 172 years.

18. Neptune. By a laborious calculation, Mr. Adams

in England, and M. Leverrier in France, determined, independently of each other, the part of the heavens in which this new planet should be on the 23rd of September 1846. On that day —a day for ever memorable in the annals of Astronomy — Dr. Galle, one of the Astronomers of the Royal Observatory at Berlin, received a letter from M. Leverrier announcing to him the result he had arrived at, and requesting him to look for the new planet in or near the place assigned by his calculation. He did so, and on that night actually found it.

SATELLITES OR MOONS.

19. The Secondary Planets are bodies which revolve about their respective primaries, as the Primary Planets revolve about the Sun. Of these, one attends on our Earth, four on Jupiter, seven on Saturn, and six on Uranus. They are all opaque bodies, and serve to reflect the light of the Sun upon their respective primaries.

20. The Moon, in revolving about the Earth, exhibits a variety of appearances, called her phases. These will be

hereafter explained.

21. The distance of the Moon from the Earth is about 237 thousand miles; and the time from one New Moon to another is somewhat more than 29½ days. Her dismeter is 2160 miles, and her magnitude ½ the of that of the Earth. The Moon has no atmosphere; consequently there is no water on her surface, and no animals or plants, constituted like those on the Earth, could live there. Volcanoes and mountains are seen on her surface when viewed through powerful telescopes.

22. The Moon, at her opposition, sometimes passes through the Earth's shadow; in which case she is partially or totally obscured, and is said to undergo an eclipse. (See

Art. on Eclipses.)

23. The Satellites of Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus, perform the same offices to their respective primaries that the Moon performs to the Earth. From the eclipses

of Jupiter's Satellites, it has been ascertained that light requires 8 minutes and 13 seconds to come from the Sun to the Earth. These four Satellites may be seen at any time with ordinary telescopes; those of Saturn, and particularly those of Uranus, can only be seen with the aid of telescopes of the most powerful kind.

COMETS.

24. Comets form the most numerous class of bodies which belong to our system, and sometimes exhibit anpearances which render them the most imposing of all natural phenomena. Like the planets, they revolve about the Sun, but differ in many important particulars from those bodies. The head of a comet consists of an ill-defined nebulous mass of luminous matter, brightest in the centre; and although they doubtless shine by reflecting the solar light, yet, as even the largest that have been observed have failed to exhibit any phases, it seems probable that they consist only of vapour penetrable by the rays of the Sun, and reflect those rays from their interior parts, as well as from their external surface. From the head of the comet a stream of light, sometimes separated into two parts, appears to diverge in a direction opposite to that of the Sun. This magnificent appendage is called the train, or tail; it grows broader as its distance from the head of the comet increases, and is sometimes of a prodigious length, extending, in some recorded instances, to 45°, 70°, and even 90°. Some comets are furnished with several tails or diverging streams of light; while others, particularly small telescopic ones, are frequently found entirely destitute of that appendage. The tail of a comet is always transparent, the smallest stars being visible through it. The number of the comets is unknown; several hundreds having been observed since the discovery of the telescope, and these form, probably, a very small proportion of the whole. Scarcely any two of them have been found to pursue nearly the same tract. Their magnitudes are also extremely various; nor is there a greater

regularity observed with respect to their motions, some of them moving in the same direction as the planets, some of them in an opposite direction, and some at right angles to the orbits of the planets. Notwithstanding the great number of the comets, there are only four which are certainly known to have been observed in successive revolutions. These are, 1st. Halley's comet, which performs its revolution in 76 years; 2d. Encke's, which revolves in about 3 years and 4 months; 3d. Biela's, the revolution of which is completed in 6 years and 9 months, and, 4th. Faye's, which revolves in 7½ years.

THE SIDEREAL SYSTEM.

25. Besides the bodies which have been already described, the boundless regions of space beyond the solar system present to our view myriads of splendid self-luminous objects, which, though probably of the same nature as our Sun, and many of them possibly far exceeding the Sun in magnitude, appear, by reason of their immense distances from us, only as so many brilliant points.

26. The Fixed Stars are arranged by astronomers, with reference to their apparent magnitudes, into several classes or orders, the brightest and largest being called stars of the first magnitude; the next to these in lustre, stars of the second magnitude; and so on to the sixth, which are the smallest visible to the naked eye. Stars which cannot be discerned without the aid of a telescope are comprehended under the general denomination of Telescopic Stars.

27. The stars are not equally scattered over the heavens, but disposed in groups, or Constellations, to which, from the remotest antiquity, names have been given from certain figures of men or animals to which they were conceived to have some resemblance. These fanciful appellations are still retained on our celestial globes and charts; some of the most conspicuous stars are, however, distinguished by particular names.

28. The whole number of stars visible to the naked eye is probably about 3000; of these, however, seldom more than a thousand can be seen by unassisted vision, at any one time above the horizon. By the aid of the telescope their number is prodigiously increased. In a portion of the Milky Way, which is nothing but an assemblage of multitudes of small stars, Sir W. Herschel observed the surprising number of 50,000 pass through the field of his telescope in one hour's time.

29. Every attempt to determine the actual distance of the stars has hitherto failed. All that astronomers have been able to ascertain with certainty upon the subject is, that the distance of Sirius (supposed to be the nearest fixed star) cannot be so small as 19 millions of miles: how much greater it may be is unknown.

30. Some of the stars are found to undergo a periodical variation of lustre, amounting in one or two instances to a complete extinction and revival; others have appeared for a while, and then died away altogether. Many stars are found to be double or triple; and of these, some exhibit the beautiful phenomena of contrasted or complementary colours, &c.; for example, if one of the stars is red, the other is generally green.

31. Though the fixed stars have no sensible motion relatively to each other, yet the places of many of them, when determined at considerable intervals of time by very accurate astronomical instruments, are found to undergo small changes. Some stars which are mentioned by ancient astronomers have now ceased to be visible.

32. For full and accurate information on this subject see Sir John Herschel's "Treatise on Astronomy," in the Cabinet Cyclopædia; also Herschel's "Outlines of Astronomy."

MOTIONS OF THE PLANETS.

33. All the planets move round the sun from west to east, and in the same direction do the moons revolve round their primaries, with the exception of those of Herschel, which appear to revolve in a contrary direction. The paths in which the planets move round the sun, and in which the moons move round their primaries, are called their orbits. These orbits are not exactly circular, as they are commonly represented on paper, but are elliptical or oval, so that all the planets are nearer the sun when in one part of their orbits than in another.

34. In addition to their annual revolutions, some of the planets are known to have diurnal, or daily revolutions, like our earth. The periods of these daily revolutions have been ascertained, in several of the planets, by spots on their surfaces. But where no such mark is discernible it cannot be ascertained whether the planet has a daily revolution or not though this has been found to be the case in every instance where spots are seen, and, therefore, there is little doubt but all have a daily, as well as a yearly motion. The axis of a planet is an imaginary line passing through its centre, and about which its diurnal revolution is performed. The poles of the planets are the extremities of this axis.

35. The orbits of Mercury and Venus are within that of the earth, and consequently they are called inferior planets. The orbits of all the other planets are without, or exterior to that of the earth, and these are called superior planets. Since the orbits of the planets are elliptical, these bodies are consequently sometimes nearer the sun than at others. An ellipse, or oval, has two foci, and the sun, instead of being in the common centre, is always in one of the foci of their orbits. The orbit of a planet is represented by the figure on next page, where A, D, B, E, is an ellipse, with its two foci, s and o, the sun being in the focus s. When the Earth, or any other planet, revolving around the sun, is in that part of its orbit nearest the sun, as at A, it is said to be in its perihelion; and when in that part which is at the greatest distance from the sun, as at B, it is said to be in its aphelion. The line, s D, is the mean, or average distance of a planet's orbit from the sun.

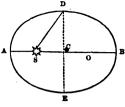


Fig. 1.

36. Ecliptic.—(See diagram of Armillary sphere.) The planes of the orbits of all the planets pass through the centre of the sun. The plane of an orbit is an imaginary surface, passing from one extremity, or side, of the orbit to the other. If the rim of a drum-head be considered the orbit, its plane would be the parchment extended across it, on which the drum is beaten. Let us suppose the earth's orbit to be such a plane, cutting the sun through his centre, and extending out on every side to the heavens; the great circle so made would mark the line of the ecliptic, or the sun's apparent path through the heavens. This circle is called the sun's apparent path, because the revolution of the earth gives the sun the appearance of passing through it. It is called the ecliptic, because eclipses happen when the moon is in, or near, this apparent path.

37. Zodiac. — The zodiac is an imaginary belt, or broad circle, extending quite around the heavens. The ecliptic divides the zodiac into two equal parts, the zodiac extending 8 degrees on each side of the ecliptic, and being therefore 16 degrees wide. The zodiac is divided into 12 equal parts called the signs of the zodiac.

38. The sun appears every year to pass around the great circle of the ecliptic, and consequently, through the 12 constellations, or signs of the zodiac. But the sun, in respect to the earth, stands still, and his apparent yearly course through the heavens is caused by the annual revolution of the earth around its orbit. To understand the

cause of this deception, let us suppose that s (Fig. 2.) is the sun, AB a part of the circle of the ecliptic, and CD, a part of the earth's orbit. Now, if a spectator be placed at C, he will see the sun in that part of the ecliptic marked by B, but when the earth moves in her annual revolution to D, the spectator will see the sun in that part of the heavens marked by A; so that the motion of the earth in one direction will give the sun an apparent motion in the contrary direction.



Fig. 2.

- 39. A sign, or constellation, is a collection of fixed stars, and, as we have already seen, the sun appears to move through the 12 signs of the zodiac every year. Now, the sun's place in the heavens, or zodiac, is found by his apparent conjunction, or nearness to any particular star in the constellation. Suppose a spectator at c observes the sun to be nearly in a line with the star at B, then the sun would be near a particular star in a certain constellation. When the earth moves to D, the sun's place would assume another direction, and he would seem to have moved into another constellation, and near the star A.
- 40. Each of the 12 signs of the zodiac is divided into 30 smaller parts, called *degrees*; each degree into 60 equal parts, called *minutes*, and each minute into 60 parts, called *seconds*.
- 41. The division of the zodiac into signs is of very ancient date, each sign having also received the name of some animal, or object, which the constellation, forming that sign, was supposed to resemble. It is hardly necessary to say, that this is chiefly the result of imagination, since the figures made by the places of the stars never mark the outlines of the figures of animals, or other objects. This is, however, found to be the most convenient method of finding any particular star at this day,

for among astronomers, any star, in each constellation. may be designated by describing the part of the animal in which it is situated. Thus, by knowing how many stars belong to the constellation Leo, or the Lion, we readily know what star is meant by that which is situated on the Lion's ear or tail.

42. The signs of the zodiac have each a special name and symbol, and are arranged in a certain order, reckoning from west to east, called the order of the signs. These are, Y Aries. & Taurus. U Gemini. 55 Cancer. A. Leo. mg Virgo. a Libra. m Scorpio. A Sagittarius. ▶ Capricornus.

Aquarius.

Pisces. It has been decided by the Egyptian Institute that these names are derived from comparisons made by the Egyptians between celestial and terrestrial phenomena, being principally of a local nature, and belonging exclusively to a part of their own country. Thus: —

(1.) Capricornus. — The first month of summer, extending from June 20 to July 20. He begins the year and leads the celestial animals, as the goat is the leader of the flock.

(2.) Aquarius. — The second month of summer, when the inundation of the Nile is at its full extent.

(3.) Pisces. The third month of summer, when the

rise of the waters causes the fish to move about.

(4.) Aries. The first month of autumn, extending from September 20 to October 20. As the waters subside, the ram returns to the pastures, leading the flocks which have been held captive by the inundation.

(5.) Taurus. The second month of autumn, denoting

the period of tillage in Egypt.

(6.) Gemini. The third month of autumn, when the seeds germinate. The sign is that of two youths of different sexes.

(7.) Cancer. The first month of winter, extending from December 20 to January 20. The motion of the crab indicates the retrograde motion of the sun at the winter solstice.

(8.) Leo. The second month of winter. The king of

animals typifies the strength and grandeur of nature at this period.

(9.) Virgo. The third month of winter. The sign

denotes beauty and fruitfulness.

(10.) Libra. The first month of spring, extending from March 20 to April 20. Allusion is made to the vernal equinox, when the days and nights are equal.

(11.) Scorpio. The second month of spring, when the heat stimulates venomous reptiles, and induces disease

and pestilence.

(12.) Sagittarius. The last month of spring. The centaur drives all before him; its course is drawing to a close.—Arago.

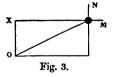
"The twelve signs of the zodiac, together with the sun, and the earth revolving around him, are represented

in the plate of astronomical diagrams.

43. It is a well known law in physical science, that all undisturbed motion is straight forward, and that a body projected into open space would continue perpetually to move in a right line, unless retarded or drawn out of this course by some external cause. To account for the motions of the planets in their orbits, we will suppose that the earth, at the time of its creation, was thrown by the hand of the Creator into open space, the sun having been before created and fixed in his present place.

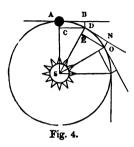
44. By the term compound motion, it is meant, that

when a body is acted on by two forces perpendicular to each other, its motion will be in a diagonal line between the direction of the two forces. But we will again here suppose that a ball be moving in the line M x, (Fig. 3,) with a given force, and that another force



half as great should strike it in the direction of N, the ball would then describe the diagonal of a parallelogram, whose length would be just equal to twice its breadth, and the line of the ball would be straight, because it would obey the impulse and direction of these two forces only.

45. Now let A, (Fig. 4,) represent the earth, and s the sun; and suppose the earth to be moving forward, in the



line from A to B, and to have arrived at A, with a velocity sufficient, in a given time, and without disturbance, to carry it to B. But at the point A, the sun S, acts upon the earth with his attractive power, and with a force which would draw it to c which would draw it to t would otherwise have gone to B. Then the earth, instead of passing to B, in a

straight line, would be drawn down to D, the diagonal of the parallelogram A, B, D, C. The line of direction in Fig. 3. is straight, because the body moved obeys only the direction of the two forces; but it is curved from A to D (Fig. 4.), in consequence of the continued force of the sun's attraction, which produces a constant deviation from a right line. When the earth arrives at D, still retaining its projectile or centrifugal force, its line of direction would be towards N, but while it would pass along to N without disturbance, the attracting force of the sun is again sufficient to bring it to E, in a straight line, so that, in obedience to the two impulses, it again describes the curve to O.

46. It must be remembered, in order to account for the circular motions of the planets, that the attractive force of the sun is not exerted at once, or by a single impulse, as is the case with the cross forces, producing a straight line, but that this force is imparted by degrees, and is constant. It therefore acts equally on the earth, in all parts of the course from A to D, and from D to o. From O, the earth, having the same impulses as before,

moves in the same curved or circular direction, and thus

its motion is continued perpetually.

47. The tendency of the earth to move forward in a straight line is called the *centrifugal force*, and the attraction of the sun, by which it is drawn downwards, or towards a centre, is called its *centripetal force*, and it is by these two forces that the planets are made to perform their constant revolutions around the sun.

48. In the above explanation, it has been supposed that the sun's attraction, was at all times equal, or that the earth was at an equal distance from the sun in all parts of its orbit. But, as heretofore explained, the orbits of all the planets are elliptical, the sun being placed in the lower focus of the ellipse. The sun's attraction is, therefore, stronger in some parts of their orbits than in others, and for this reason their velocities are greater at some periods of their revolutions than at others.

49. To render this intelligible, suppose, as before, that the centrifugal and centripetal forces so balance each other.

that the earth moves round the circular orbit AEB, (Fig. 5,) until it comes to the point E; and at this point, let us suppose that the gravitating force is too strong for the force of projection, so that the earth, instead of continuing its former direction towards B, is attracted by the sun S, in the curve EC. When at C, the line of the earth's projectile force, instead of tending to carry it farther

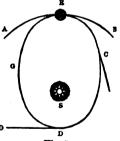
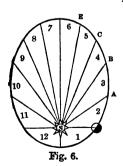


Fig. 5.

from the sun, as would be the case were it revolving in a circular orbit, now tends to draw it still nearer to him, so that at this point it is impelled by both forces towards the sun. From c, therefore, the sun's attraction is increasing in proportion as the square of the distance between the sun and earth diminishes, the velocity of the

earth will be uniformly accelerated, until it arrives at the point nearest the sun, p. At this part of its orbit, the earth will have gained, by its increased velocity, so much centrifugal force, as to give it a tendency to overcome the sun's attraction, and to fly off in the line Do. But the sun's attraction being also increased by the near approach of the earth, the earth is retained in its orbit, notwithstanding its increased centrifugal force, and it therefore passes through the opposite part of its orbit, from D to G, at the same distance from him that it approached. As the earth passes from the sun, the sun's attraction tends continually to retard the motion of the earth as it did to increase it while approaching him. But the velocity the earth had acquired in approaching the sun, gives it the same rate of motion from D to G. that it had from c to D. From G, the earth's motion is uniformly retarded, until it again arrives at E, the point from which it commenced, and from whence it describes the same orbit, by virtue of the same forces, as before. The earth, therefore, in its journey round the sun, moves at very unequal velocities, sometimes being retarded, and then again accelerated, by the sun's attraction.

50. It is an interesting circumstance, respecting the motions of the planets, that if the contents of their orbits be divided unto unequal triangles, the acute angles of



which centre at the sun, with the line of the orbit for their bases, the centre of the planet will pass through each of these bases in equal times. This will be understood from Fig. 6., the elliptic being supposed to be the earth's orbit, with the sun, S, in one of the foci. Now the spaces 1, 2. 3, &c., though of different shapes, are of the same dimensions, or contain an equal area. The earth we have already seen,

in its journey round the sun, describes an ellipse, and moves more rapidly in one part of its orbit than in another. But whatever may be its actual velocity, its comparative motion is through equal areas in equal times. Thus its centre passes from E to C, and from C to B, in the same period of time, and so of all the other divisions marked in the figure. If the figure, therefore, be considered the plane of the earth's orbit, divided into 12 equal areas, answering to the 12 months of the year, the earth will pass through the same areas in every month, but the spaces through which it passes will be increased, during every month, for one half the year, and diminished, during every month, for the other half.

51. The reason why the planets, when they approach near the sun, do not fall to him, in consequence of his increased attraction, and why they do not fly off into open space, when they recede to the greatest distance from him,

may be thus explained.

52. Taking the earth as an example, we have shown that when in the part of her orbit nearest the sun, her velocity is greatly increased by his attraction, and that consequently the earth's centrifugal force is increased in proportion. As an illustration of this, we know that a thread which will sustain an ounce ball, when whirled round in the air, at the rate of 50 revolutions in a minute, would be broken where these revolutions increased to the number of 60 or 70 in a minute, and that the ball would then fly off in a straight line. This shows that when the motion of a revolving body is increased, its centrifugal force is also increased. Now, the velocity of the earth increases in an inverse proportion, as its distance from the sun diminishes, and in proportion to the increase of velocity is its centrifugal force increased; so that, in any other part of its orbit, except when nearest the sun, this increase of velocity would carry the earth away from its centre of attraction. But this increase of the earth's velocity is caused by its near approach to the sun, and consequently the sun's attraction is increased, as well as the earth's velocity. In other terms, when the centrifugal force is increased, the centripetal force is increased, in proportion, and thus, while the centrifugal force prevents the earth from falling to the sun, the centripetal force

prevents it from moving off in a straight line.

53. When the earth is in that part of its orbit most distant from the sun, its projectile velocity being retarded by the counter force of the sun's attraction, becomes greatly diminished, and then the centripetal force becomes stronger than the centrifugal, and the earth is again brought back by the sun's attraction, as before, and in this manner its motion goes on without ceasing. It is supposed, as the planets move through spaces void of resistance, that their centrifugal forces remain the same as when they first emanated from the hand of the Creator, and that this force, without the influence of the sun's attraction, would carry them forward into infinite space.

KEPLER'S LAWS.

54. The laws of elliptic motion about the sun as a focus, and of the equable description of areas by lines joining the sun and planets, were originally established by Kepler, from a consideration of the observed motion of Mars; and were by him extended, analogically, to all, the other planets. These laws are three:—

 That every planet moves so that the line drawn from it to the sun describes about the sun areas proportional to the times.

2. That the planets all move in elliptic orbits, of which

the sun occupies one of the foci.

 That the squares of the times of the revolutions of the planets are as the cubes of their mean distances from the sun.

The announcement of these laws by Kepler led to a further inquiry into the causes which governed these movements. 1. From the first law, Newton concluded that the force acting on the planets is directed towards the centre of the sun. 2. From the second law, he

determined that the force acting on the planets is in the inverse ratio of the square of the distance of their centres from that of the sun. 3. From the third law, he found that the force is proportionate to the mass.

MOTION OF THE EARTH.

55. The motion of the earth round the sun is at the rate of 68,000 miles in an hour, while its motion on its own axis, at the equator, is at the rate of about 1042 miles in the hour. The equator, being that part of the earth most distant from its axis, the motion there is more rapid than towards the poles, in proportion to its greater distance from the axis of motion.

56. The method of ascertaining the velocity of the earth's motion, both in its orbit and round its axis, is simple, and easily understood; for by knowing the diameter of the earth's orbit, its circumference is readily found, and as we know how long it takes the earth to perform her yearly circuit, we have only to calculate what part of her journey she goes through in an hour. By the same principle, the hourly rotation of the earth is as

readily ascertained.

57. We are insensible to these motions, because not only the earth, but the atmosphere, and all terrestrial things, partake of the same motion, and there is no change in the relation of objects in consequence of it. If we look out at the window of a railway-carriage when it is in motion, the carriage will seem to stand still, while the hills, fields, and trees appear to pass rapidly by us. This deception arises from our not having any object with which to compare this motion, when shut up in the carriage, for then every object around us keeps the same relative position. And so, in respect to the motion of the earth, having nothing with which to compare its movement, except the heavenly bodies, when the earth moves in one direction, these objects appear to move in the contrary direction.

58. It will be necessary for the pupil to retain in his

memory the names and directions of the lines, or circles, by which the earth is divided into parts. See the beginning of this work, also the diagram of the projection of the sphere. These lines, it must be understood, are entirely imaginary, there being no such divisions marked by nature on the earth's surface. They are, however, so necessary that no accurate description of the earth, or of its position with respect to the heavenly bodies, can be conveyed without them.

59. The revolution of the earth about its axis produces day and night, and the seasons result from its revolution round the sun. Before we proceed to describe these phenomena, it is necessary to consider,

THE INCLINATION OF THE EARTH'S AXIS.

60. The inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit never varies, but always makes an angle with it of 23½°, as it moves round the sun. The axis of the earth is therefore always parallel with itself: that is, if a line be drawn through the centre of the earth, in the direction of its axis, and extended north and south, beyond the earth's diameter, the line so produced will always be parallel to the same line, or any number of lines, so drawn, when the earth is in different parts of its orbit.

61. Suppose a rod to be fixed into the flat surface of a table, and so inclined as to make an angle with a perpendicular from the table of 23½°. Let this rod represent the axis of the earth, and the surface of the table, the ecliptic. Now place on the table a lamp, and round the lamp hold a wire circle three or four feet in diameter, so that it shall be parallel with the plane of the table, and as high above it as the flame of the lamp. Having prepared a small terrestrial globe, by passing a wire through it for an axis, and letting it project a few inches each way, for the poles, take hold of the north pole, and carry it round the circle, with the poles constantly parallel to the rod rising above the table. The rod being inclined 23½° from a perpendicular, the poles and axis will be inclined

in the same degree, and thus the axis of the earth will be inclined to that of the ecliptic everywhere in the same degree, and lines drawn in the direction of the earth's axis will be parallel to each other in any part of its orbit.

62. This will be understood by the diagram of the seasons, where it will be seen, that the poles of the earth, in the several positions being equally inclined, are parallel to each other. Supposing the lamp to represent the sun, and the wire circle the earth's orbit, the actual position of the earth, during its annual revolution round the sun, will be comprehended; and if the globe be turned on its axis, while passing round the lamp, the diurnal or daily revolution of the earth will also be represented.

DAY AND NIGHT.

63. Were the direction of the earth's axis perpendicular to the plane of its orbit, the days and nights would be of equal length all the year, for then just one half of the earth, from pole to pole, would be enlightened, and at the same time the other half would be in darkness. Suppose the line so (Fig. 7.), from the sun to the earth, to be



Fig. 7.

the plane of the earth's orbit, and that N s is the axis of the earth perpendicular to it, then it is obvious, that exactly the same points on the earth would constantly pass through the alternate vicissitudes of day and night; for all who live on the meridian line between N and S, which line crosses the equator at o, would see the sun at the same time, and consequently, as the earth revolves, would pass into the dark hemisphere at the same time. Hence, in all parts of the globe, the days and nights would be of

equal length, at any given place.

64. Now it is the inclination of the earth's axis, as above described, which causes the lengths of the days and nights to differ at the same place at different seasons of the year; for, on reviewing the position of the globe at the summer solstice, as shown in the second diagram in the plate of the projection of the sphere, it will be observed, that the line formed by the enlightened and dark hemispheres does not coincide with the line of the axis and poles, as in Fig. 7, but that the line formed by the darkness and the light extends obliquely across the line of the earth's axis, so that the north pole is in the light, while the south is in the dark. In this position, therefore, an observer at the north pole would see the sun constantly, while another at the south pole would not see it at all. Hence those living in the north temperate zone, at the season of the year when the earth is at the summer solstice. would have long days and short nights; while those who live in the south temperate zone, at the same time, and when it would be winter there, would have long nights and short days in the same proportion.

SEASONS OF THE YEAR.

65. The vicissitudes of the seasons are caused by the annual revolution of the earth round the sun, together with the inclination of its axis to the plane of its orbit. It has already been explained, that the ecliptic is the plane of the earth's orbit, and is supposed to be placed on a level with the earth's horizon, and hence, that this plane is considered the standard, by which the inclination of the lines crossing the earth, and the obliquity of the orbits of the other planets, are to be estimated.

66. The equinoctial line, or the great circle passing round the middle of the earth, is inclined to the ecliptic, as well as the line of the earth's axis, and hence, in passing round the sun, the equinoctial line intersects, or crosses the ecliptic, in two places, opposite to each other. Sup-

pose AB (Fig. 8.), to be the ecliptic, EF, the equator, and

C D, the earth's axis. ecliptic and equator are supposed to be seen edgewise, so as to appear like lines instead Now it will be of circles. understood from the figure that the inclination of the equator to the ecliptic, (or the sun's apparent annual through the heavens.) will eause those lines, namely, the line of the equator and the line of the ecliptic, to cut, or cross

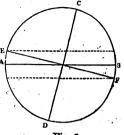


Fig. 8.

each other, as the sun makes his apparent annual revolution, and that this intersection will happen twice in the year, when the earth is in the two opposite points of her orbit.

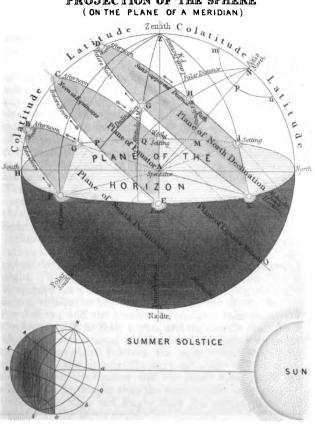
67. These periods are on the 21st of March and the 21st of September, in each year, and the points at which the sun is seen at these times are called the equinoctial points. That which happens in September is called the autumnal equinox, and that which happens in March, the vernal equinox. At these seasons, the sun rises at 6 o'clock and sets at 6 o'clock, and the days and nights are

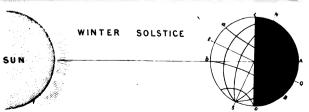
equal in length in every part of the globe.

68. The solstices are the points where the ecliptic and the equator are at the greatest distance from each other. The earth, in its yearly revolution, passes through each of these points. One is called the summer, and the other the winter solstice. (See plate.) The sun is said to enter the summer solstice on the 21st of June; and at this time in our hemisphere, the days are longest and the nights shortest. On the 21st of December he enters his winter solstice, when the length of the days and nights are reversed from what they were in June, the days being shortest and the nights longest.

69. Having learned these explanations, the student will be able to understand in what order the seasons

PROJECTION OF THE SPHERE (ON THE PLANE OF A MERIDIAN)





succeed each other, and the reason why such changes are the effect of the earth's revolution.

70. Suppose the earth, as shown in the diagram of the seasons on the plate, to be in her summer solstice, which takes place on the 21st of June. At this period she will have her north pole, N, so inclined towards the sun, that the whole arctic circle will be illuminated, and consequently the sun's rays will extend 231 degrees, the breadth of the polar circles, beyond the north pole. The diurnal revolution, therefore, when the earth is in this position causes no succession of day and night at the pole, since the whole frigid zone is within the reach of his rays. The people who live within the arctic circle will consequently, at this time, enjoy perpetual day. During this period, just the same proportion of the earth that is enlightened in the northern hemisphere, will be in total darkness in the opposite region of the southern hemisphere; so that while the people of the north enjoy perpetual day, those of the south are enveloped in perpetual night. Those who live near the arctic circle in the north temperate zone, will, during the summer, come, for a few hours, within the regions of night, by the earth's diurnal revolution; and the greater the distance from the circle. the longer will be their nights, and the shorter their days. Hence, at this season, the days will be longer than the nights everywhere between the equator and the arctic circle. At the equator, the days and nights will be equal, and between the equator and the south polar circle the nights will be longer than the days, in the same proportion as the days are longer than the nights, from the equator to the arctic circle.

71. As the earth moves round the sun, the line which divides the darkness and the light gradually approaches the poles, till having performed one quarter of her yearly journey from the point where she is in June, she comes to that in which she is shown about the 21st of September. At this time, the boundary of light and darkness passes through the poles, dividing the earth equally from east to west; and thus in every part of the world, the days and

nights are of equal length, the sun being 12 hours alternately above and below the horizon. In this position of the earth, the sun is said to be in the autumnal equinox.

72. In the progress of the earth in her orbit, the light of the sun gradually reaches a little more of the antarctic circle. The days, therefore, in the northern hemisphere, grow shorter at every diurnal revolution, until the 21st of December, when the whole arctic circle is involved in total darkness. And now, the same places which enjoyed constant day in the June before, are involved in perpetual night. At this time, the sun, to those who live in the northern hemisphere, is said to be in his winter solstice; and then the winter nights are just as long as were the summer days, and the winter days as long as the summer nights.

73. When the earth has completed another quarter of her annual journey, and has come to the point of her orbit opposite to where she was on the 21st of September, which happens on the 21st of March, the line dividing the light from the darkness again passes through both poles. In this position of the earth with respect to the sun, the days and nights are again equal all over the world, and

the sun is said to be in his vernal equinox.

74. From the vernal equinox, as the earth advances, the northern hemisphere enjoys more and more light, while the southern falls into the region of darkness, in proportion, so that the days north of the equator increase in length until the 21st of June, at which time the sun is again longest above the horizon, and the shortest time below it.

75. Thus the apparent motion of the sun from east to west, is caused by the real motion of the earth from west to east. If the earth is in any point of its orbit, the sun will always seem in the opposite point in the heavens. When the earth moves one degree to the west, the sun seems to move the same distance to the east; and when the earth has completed one revolution in its orbit, the sun appears to have completed a revolution through the heavens. Hence it follows, that the ecliptic, or the apparent

rent path of the sun through the heavens, is the real path of the earth round the sun.

76. It will be observed by the above explanation of the seasons, and a close inspection of the diagram by which it is illustrated, that the sun constantly shines on a portion of the earth equal to 90 degrees north, and 90 degrees south, from his place in the heavens, and, consequently, that he always enlightens 180 degrees, or one half the earth. If, therefore, the axis of the earth were perpendicular to the plane of its orbit, the days and nights would everywhere be equal, for as the earth performs its diurnal revolutions there would be 12 hours day, and 12 hours night. But since the inclination of its axis is 231 degrees, the light of the sun is thrown 231 degrees beyond the north pole; that is, it enlightens the earth 231 degrees further in that direction, when the north pole is turned towards the sun, than it would, had the earth's axis no inclination. Now, as the sun's light reaches only ninety degrees north or south of his place in the heavens, so when the arctic circle is enlightened, the antarctic circle must be in the dark; for if the light reaches 231 degrees beyond the north pole, it must fall 231 degrees short of the south pole.

77. As the earth travels round the sun, in his yearly circuit, this inclination of the poles is alternately towards and from. During our winter the north polar region is thrown beyond the rays of the sun, while a corresponding portion around the south pole enjoys the sun's light. And thus, at the poles, there are alternately six months of darkness and winter, and six months of sunshine and summer. While we, in the northern hemisphere, are chilled by the cold blasts of winter, the inhabitants of the southern hemisphere are enjoying all the delights of summer; and while we are scorched by the rays of a vertical sun in June and July, our southern friends are shivering with the

rigours of mid-winter.

78. At the equator, no such changes take place. The rays of the sun, as the earth passes round him, are vertical twice a year at every place between the tropics.

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Hence, at the equator, there are two summers and no winter, and as the sun there constantly shines on the same half of the earth in succession, were it not for the refractive properties of the atmosphere, the days and nights would always be equal, and there would be 12 hours of light, and 12 of darkness.

79. Our northern Spring is in March, April, and May; but the southern Spring is in September, October, and

November.

80. Our Summer is in June, July, August, and September; and the southern Summer is in December, January, and February.

81. So our Autumn is in September, October, and November; and the southern Autumn is in March, April,

and May.

32. And our *Winter* is in December, January, February; while the *southern* Winter is in June, July, and August.

83. The seasons in the torrid zone are different from

the temperate zones.

- 84. The only distinction within the tropics is from hot and dry, to hot and rainy; and most countries of the torrid zone have six months inclining to wet, and six months inclining to dry air.
- 85. The frigid zone, has only two seasons, winter and summer; twilight, or perpetual sunshine, for weeks or months.

The long night of winter is very severe, the sun never appearing above the horizon. The most rapid rivers are then frozen from five to six feet deep; the largest lakes and bays are also frozen so as to bear any weight; and rocks are burst by the intensity of the frost.

The brilliancy of the stars, and the Aurora Borealis, make some compensation for the sun's absence. The long twilight, also, which precedes the sun's rising, and lingers after its setting, considerably

diminishes the time of total darkness.

The transition, in the frigid zone, from winter's frost to summer's heat, is amazingly rapid. The short summer is very hot, but foggy; and the continual sunshine enables the inhabitants to lay up provisions for the dreary winter.

DIVISIONS OF TIME.

86. Solar and Sidereal time — The stars appear to go round the earth in 23 hours, 56 minutes, and 4 seconds, while the sun appears to perform the same revolution in 24 hours, so that the stars gain 3 minutes and 56 secends upon the sun every day. In a year, this amounts to a day, or to the time taken by the earth to perform one diurnal revolution. It therefore happens, that when time is measured by the stars, there are 366 days in the year, or 366 diurnal revolutions of the earth; while, if measured by the sun from one meridian to another, there are only 365 whole days in the year. The former are called the sidereal, and the latter solar days.

87. Équal, or mean time is that which is reckoned by a clock, supposed to indicate exactly 24 hours, from 12 o'clock on one day, to 12 o'clock on the next day, Apparent time is that which is measured by the apparent motion of the sun in the heavens, as indicated by a meri-

dian line, or sun dial.

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THE MOON.

88. One of the most interesting circumstances to us, respecting the moon, is the constant changes which she undergoes, in her passage around the earth. When she first appears, a day or two after her change, we can see only a small portion of her enlightened side, which is in the form of a crescent; and at this time she is commonly called new moon. From this period she goes on increasing, or showing more and more of her face every evening, until at last she becomes round, and her face fully illuminated. She then begins again to decrease, by apparently losing a small section of her face, and the next evening another small section from the same part, and so on, decreasing a little every day, until she entirely disappears; and having been absent a day or two, re-appears, in the form of a crescent, or new moon, as before. When the moon disappears, she is said to be in conjunction, that is,

she is in the same direction from us with the sun. When she is full, she is said to be in *opposition*, that is, she is in that part of the heavens opposite to the sun, as seen

by us.

89. The different appearances of the moon from new to full, and from full to change, are owing to her presenting different portions of her enlightened surface towards us at different times. These appearances are called the phases of the moon, and are easily accounted for, and understood, by the diagram on the plate. 1. Now when the moon changes, or is in conjunction with the sun, her dark side is turned towards the earth, and she is invisible. The sun always shines on one half of the moon, in every direction, as represented on the outer circle; but we at the earth can see only such portions of the enlightened half as are turned towards us. After her change, when she has moved through a certain portion of her orbit, a small part of her illuminated side comes in sight, and she appears horned, and is then called the new moon. 3. Several days afterwards, one half of her disk is visible, her appearance being the same in both circles. At this point she is said to be in her first quarter, because she has passed through a quarter of her orbit, and is 90 degrees from the place of her conjunction with the sun. 4. She then shows us still more of her enlightened side, and is then said to appear aibbous. 5. As she proceeds in her orbit she comes into a position in which her whole enlightened side is turned towards the earth, and she appears in all the splendour of a full moon. During the other half of her revolution, she daily shows less and less of her illuminated side, until she again becomes invisible by her conjunction with the sun. Thus, in passing from her conjunction to her full the moon appears every day to increase, while in going from her full to her conjunction again, she appears to us constantly to decrease, but as seen from the sun, she appears always full.

ECLIPSES.

- 90. Lunar Eclipses. When the moon falls into the shadow of the earth, the rays of the sun are intercepted. or hid from her, and she then becomes eclipsed. When the earth's shadow covers only a part of her face, as seen by us, she suffers only a partial eclipse, one part of her disk being obscured, while the other part reflects the sun's light. But when her whole surface is obscured by the earth's shadow, she then suffers a total eclipse, and of a duration proportionate to the distance she passes through the earth's shadow. On the plate is represented a total lunar eclipse; the moon being in the midst of the earth's shadow. Now it will be apparent that in the situation of the sun, earth, and moon, as represented in the figure, this eclipse will be visible from all parts of that hemisphere of the earth which is next the moon, and that the moon's disk will be equally obscured, from whatever point it is seen. When the moon passes through only a part of the earth's shadow, then she suffers only a partial eclipse, but this is also visible from the whole hemisphere next the moon. It will be remembered that lunar eclipses happen only at full moon, the sun and moon being in opposition. and the earth between them.
- 91. Solar Eclipses. When the moon passes between the earth and sun, there happens an eclipse of the sun, because then the moon's shadow falls upon the earth. A total eclipse of the sun happens often, but when it occurs, the total obscurity is confined to a small part of the earth; since the dark portion of the moon's shadow never exceeds 200 miles in diameter on the earth. But the moon's partial shadow, or penumbra, may cover a space on the earth of more than 4000 miles in diameter, within all which space the sun will be more or less eclipsed. When the penumbra first touches the earth, the eclipse begins at that place, and ends when the penumbra leaves it. But the eclipse will be total only where the dark shadow of the moon touches the earth. The right hand

figure in the plate represents an eclipse of the sun, without regard to the penumbra, that it may be observed how small a part of the earth the dark shadow of the moon covers. To those who live within the limits of this shadow, the eclipse will be total, while to those who live in any direction around it, and within reach of the penumbra, it will be only partial.

92. Solar eclipses are called annular, from annulus, a ring, when the moon passes across the centre of the sun, hiding all his light, with the exception of a ring on his outer edge, which the moon is too small to cover from the position in which it is seen. The penumbra, as already stated, may cover more than 4000 miles of space, while the umbra never covers more than 200 miles in diameter; hence partial eclipses of the sun may be seen by a vast number of inhabitants, while comparatively few will witness the total eclipse.

93. When there happens a total solar eclipse to us we are eclipsed to the moon, and when the moon is eclipsed to us, an eclipse of the sun happens to the moon. To the moon, an eclipse of the earth can never be total, since her shadow covers only a small portion of the earth's surface. Such an eclipse, therefore, at the moon, appears only as a dark spot on the face of the earth; but when the moon is eclipsed to us, the sun is partially eclipsed to the moon for several hours longer than the moon is eclipsed to us.

THE TIDES.

94. The ocean rises and falls alternately. Its height is observed to be greatest at any given place at a certain time after the moon has passed the meridian of that place; it then decreases in height to a certain degree, after which it again gradually rises. These phenomena recur after nearly the same intervals of time, and are called the ebbing and flowing of the ocean, or, more commonly, the tides. The interval of time between low water and the following high water is called flood tide; and that between high and low water, ebb tide. If the interval of time between

two successive passages of the moon over the same semimeridian be called a lunar day, there are generally, or on

an average, two high tides in one lunar day.

95. The cause of the tides is the attraction of the sun and moon, but chiefly of the moon, on the waters of the ocean. In virtue of the universal principal of gravitation, the moon, by her attraction, draws, or raises the water towards her; but, because the power of attraction diminishes as the squares of the distances increase, the waters, on the opposite side of the earth, are not so much attracted as they are on the side nearest the moon. This want of attraction, together with the greater centrifugal force of the earth on its opposite side, produced in consequence of its greater distance from the common centre of gravity, between the earth and moon, causes the waters to rise on the opposite side, at the same time that they are raised by direct attraction on the side nearest the moon.

96. Thus the waters are constantly elevated on the sides of the earth opposite to each other above their common level, and consequently depressed at opposite points equally distant from these elevations. As the moon passes round the earth (see plate illustrating the tides), its solid and fluid parts are equally attracted by her influence according to their densities; but while the solid parts are at liberty to move only as a whole, the water obeys the slightest impulse, and thus tends towards the moon where her attraction is the strongest. Consequently, the waters are perpetually elevated immediately under the moon. If, therefore, the earth stood still, the influence of the moon's attraction would raise the tides only as she passed round the earth. But as the earth turns on her axis every twenty-four hours, and as the waters nearest the moon are constantly elevated, they will, in the course of twenty-four hours, move round the whole earth, and consequently from this cause there will be high water at every place once in twenty-four hours. As the elevation of the waters under the moon causes the depression at 90° distance on the opposite sides of the

earth, by the earth's diurnal revolution, there will be low water at any given place six hours after it was high water at that place. But while it is high water under the moon, in consequence of her direct attraction, it is also high water on the opposite side of the earth, in consequence of her diminished attraction and the earth's centrifugal motion, and therefore it will be high water from this cause twelve hours after it was high water from the former cause, and six hours after it was low water from both causes.

97. Thus when it is high water directly under the moon and at the opposite side of the earth, it is low water at 90° from these points, and as the earth revolves once in twenty-four hours, there will be an alternate ebbing and flowing of the tide, at every place, once in six hours. But while the earth turns on her axis, the moon advances in her orbit, and consequently any given point on the earth will not come under the moon on one day so soon as it did on the day before. For this reason, high or low water at any place occurs about fifty minutes later on one day than it did the day before.

98. Thus far we have considered no other attractive influence except that of the moon, as affecting the waters of the ocean. But the sun, as already observed, has an effect upon the tides, though on account of his great distance, his influence is small when compared with that of the moon. When the sun and moon are in conjunction, which takes place at her change, or at new moon, or when they are in opposition, or at full moon, then their forces are united, or act on the waters in the same direction, and consequently the tides are elevated higher than usual, and on this account are called spring tides, See Plate illustrating the tides.

99. But when the moon is in her quadratures, or quarters, the attraction of the sun tends to counteract that of the moon, and although his attraction does not elevate the waters and produce tides, his influence diminishes that of the moon, and consequently the elevation of the waters is less when the sun and moon are so situated

in respect to each other, than when they are in conjunction, or opposition. This effect is represented by the right hand fig. on the plate, where the elevation of the tides is produced by the causes already explained; but their elevation is not so great as in the left hand fig., since the influence of the sun, tends to counteract the moon's attractive influence. These small tides are called neap tides, and happen only when the moon is in her quadratures.

100. The tides are not at their greatest heights at any given place when the moon is on the meridian of that place, but some time afterwards, because the water, having a motion forward, continues to advance by its own inertia, some time after the direct influence of the moon has ceased to affect it. This may be also observed with respect to the greatest heat and cold, which are not felt on the solstitial days, when the action of the sun is greatest and least.

101. The tides rise to different heights in different parts of the world; in the Bristol channel they rise above forty feet, and on the eastern coast of North America more than fifty feet; but their average height is considerably under twenty feet. In the Mediterranean sea, the tides are small, and in some places scarcely perceptible; this is occasioned by the inland character of that sea, and by the arrest given to the rise and fall of the tides by the straits of Gibraltar. For the progress of the tide wave see the chapter on Physical Geography.

THE USE OF THE GLOBES.

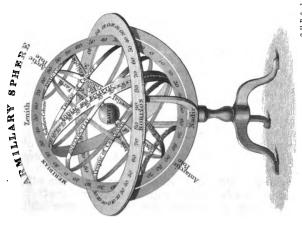
" 102. A GLOBE, or SPHERE, is a body every way perfectly round. Artificial globe is a term more particularly used to denote a globe of metal, plaster, paper, pasteboard, &c. If, upon such a globe, the several continents, empires, kingdoms, countries, cities, oceans, seas, rivers, &c., that are spread over the surface of our earth, be accurately delineated, it will form what is called a terrestrial globe*, and is so named in contradistinction to the celestial globe, which is an inverted representation of the heavens.

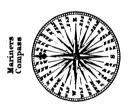
The use of these artificial globes is to illustrate the leading principles of geography and astronomy. For this purpose a number of circles &c. are drawn upon them.

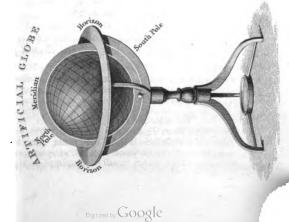
103. The Axis of the earth is an imaginary line passing through its centre, about which its diurnal rotation is performed, thereby causing an apparent revolution of the heavens, in the same time that the earth takes to turn upon its axis, but in a direction exactly the reverse of that in which its rotation is performed. This line is represented by the wire on which the artificial globe turns. (See plate illustrating the artificial globe.)

104. The Poles of the earth are the extremities of the axis. That on the north is called the *arctic*, and that on the south the *antarctic pole*. The *celestial poles* are

• The figure of the earth is not, strictly speaking, that of a true sphere, but of an oblate spheroid, being a little compressed at the polar, and swelled out at the equatorial regions. According to the most recent experiments and observations the equatorial diameter is 7925'648 miles; the polar 7899'170; their difference, 26'478 miles. The proportion of these diameters is very nearly 299 to 298; and consequently, their difference is $\frac{1}{205}$ of the greater, being too little to require or to admit of any deviation from a true sphere, even in the largest of those artificial globes usually constructed to represent the earth and heavens.







those two imaginary points in the heavens through which the earth's axis, produced each way to the sphere of the

heavens, would pass.

105. The BRASS MERIDIAN is the ring or circle in which the artificial globe is suspended by means of the axis; it is divided into four quadrants, of 90 degrees each. Two of these are numbered from the equator towards the poles, for the purpose of showing the latitudes of places, or the declinations of the celestial bodies: the other two quadrants are numbered from the poles towards the equator, and are used for elevating the poles of the globe.

106. The CIRCLES on the globe are of two kinds, great and less. Great circles are those whose planes pass through the centre of the globe, dividing it into two equal parts. Less circles are those whose planes do not pass through the centre of the globe, and, conse-

quently, divide it into two unequal parts.

107. All circles, whether great or less, are supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; each degree into sixty equal parts, called minutes; and each minute into sixty equal parts called seconds. Degrees are marked with a small cipher, minutes with a single dash, and seconds with a double dash; thus, 44° 10′ 12″ signifies forty-four degrees, ten minutes, twelve seconds.

108. A HEMISPHERE is half a sphere, and therefore is half the surface of the globe; every great circle divides

the globes into two hemispheres.

109. The EQUATOR is a great circle, at every point equidistant from the poles, and therefore dividing the globe into two equal parts, called the northern and southern hemispheres. In reference to the heavens, this circle is called the *Equinoctial*, because when the sun appears in it, the nights and days are equal all over the earth.

110. MERIDIANS are semicircles passing through the poles, and consequently cutting the equator at right angles. Every place has its own meridian, though there are commonly only twenty-four meridians drawn upon the globe, one of which passes through every fifteenth

degree of the equator. The brass meridian, as the globe revolves on its axis, becomes a meridian to every point on its surface. When, by the diurnal rotation of the earth on its axis, the meridian of any place comes under the sun, it is said to be noon or mid-day at that place.

111. The First Meridian is that from which the longitude of places is reckoned. Modern geographers assume the meridian of the capital city, or principal observatory, of their own country as a first meridian; thus English geographers reckon their longitude from the meridian passing through the royal observatory at Greenwich.

112. The Ecliptic is the circle in which the plane of the earth's orbit is supposed to be extended in every direction, meets the sphere of the heavens, and is consequently the path in which the sun appears to perform his annual revolution, at the mean rate of about one degree in a day. This circle makes an angle of 23° 28′ 27″ with the equinoctial, which it cuts in two opposite points, called the equinoctial points. It is divided into 12 equal parts, called signs, each occupying 30° of its circumference. The signs commence at the vernal equinox; their names, and the characters by which they are denoted, are as follows: Aries Y, Taurus &, Gemini II, Cancer &, Leo &, Virgo M, Libra \(\triangleq\), Scorpio m, Sagittarius \(t\), Capricornus \(\nagle f\), Aquarius \(\xi\), Pisces \(\times\). The ecliptic is drawn on the terrestrial globe, merely for the convenience of working some of the problems.

113. The Zodiac in the heavens is a space extending eight or nine degrees on each side of the ecliptic, within which the motions of the moon and the principal planets

are performed.

114. The Equinoctial Points are the two points in which the ecliptic and equator intersect. These points are so called, because when the sun is in either of them, day and night are equal all over the globe. They are the first points of Aries and Libra.

115. The Solstitial Points are the two points of the ecliptic at the greatest distance from the equator. They

are so named because, when the sun is near either of them, his meridian altitude continues nearly the same for several days together. They are the first points of Cancer and

Capricorn.

116. The COLURES are two great circles perpendicular to the equator and to each other. One of them passes through the equinoctial points, and is called the *Equinoctial Colure*; the other passes through the solstitial points, and is called the *Solstitial Colure*.

117. The Tropics are two small circles parallel to the equator (or equinoctial), and passing through the solstitial points; the northern is called the *Tropic of Cancer*, and

the southern the Tropic of Caprico'rn.

118. The POLAR CIRCLES are two small circles parallel to the equator, and situated 23½° from each pole, or at the same distance from the poles as the tropics are from the equator. That which surrounds the North Pole is called the arctic circle, and that surrounding the South Pole the antarctic circle.

The whole surface of the terrestrial globe is divided by the tropics and the polar circles into five zones, viz. one

torrid, two temperate, and two frigid zones.

119. The TORRID ZONE comprehends the whole space between the tropics which bound it on the north and south. The breadth of this zone is 46° 56′ nearly

120. The Two Temperate Zones, which are the spaces between the tropics and the polar circles, are designated north or south, as they are in the northern or southern hemispheres; each of these occupies a space of 43° 4′, nearly.

121. The Two Frigid Zones are the spaces within the polar circles, each having one of the poles for its

centre.

122. The ZENITH is the point of the heavens immediately over the head of the spectator (see diagram of the projection of the sphere on the plane of a meridian): it is the elevated pole of our horizon.

123. The NADIR is the point in the heavens immediately under the feet of the spectator, and is the de-

pressed pole of his horizon. The horizon is either sensible or rational.

124. The SENSIBLE HORIZON is the circle which bounds our view on an extensive plain, and in which the

earth and sky seem to meet.

125. The RATIONAL HORIZON is an imaginary circle, the plane of which passes through the centre of the earth, parallel to the plane of the sensible horizon: it divides the heavens into two equal parts, called the visible and invisible hemispheres. This circle is represented by

126. The Wooden Horizon, circumscribing the artificial globe, which is commonly divided by several concentric circles. The first or innermost of these is marked amplitude, and is numbered from the east and west points. towards the north and south, to show the distance of any object from the east or west points of the horizon. second, marked azimuth, is numbered from the north and south points, towards the east and west, to show the distance of any object from the north or south points of the horizon. The third contains the points of the compass, divided into half and quarter points; the degrees answering to which are to be found in the azimuth circle. The fourth circle contains the signs of the zodiac, with the character appropriated to each sign. The fifth contains the degrees of the signs, each sign comprehending 30°. The sixth contains the days of the month, answering to each degree of the sun's place in the ecliptic. seventh contains the names of the twelve calendar months.

127. The LATITUDE OF ANY PLACE is its distance north or south from the equator, and is reckoned in degrees and minutes on that meridian of the place, as far as 90° in both directions.

128. The LONGITUDE OF ANY PLACE is the distance of the meridian of that place from the first meridian, and is either east or west, as the place is eastward or westward from that meridian. The greatest longitude any place can have is 180°, or half the circumference of the globe.

Obs. Longitude, at any given place on the earth, is measured in miles on the small circle parallel to the equator passing through that place. But as the parallel circles become smaller and smaller as they are at a greater distance from the equator, while the number of degrees in every circle is constantly 360, the length of a degree of longitude must necessarily decrease as the latitude becomes greater. The following table shows, in British miles, the length of a degree of the parallel passing through every fifth degree of latitude on a sphere whose diameter is equal to the equatorial diameter of the earth:—

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.
0	69-16	35	56.65	65	29-23
5	68-90	40	52.98	70	23.65
10	68-11	45	48.90	75	17.90
15	66.80	50	44.45	80	12.01
20	64.99	55	39.67	85	6.03
25	62.68	60	34.58	90	0.00
30	59.89				

PROBLEMS ON THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

PROBLEM I.— To find the latitude and longitude of any given place; also to find all those places that have the same longitude and the same latitude as the place given.

Rule.—Turn the globe on its axis, till the given place comes under that part of the brazen meridian which is numbered from the equator towards the poles: the degree immediately over the place is the latitude sought, which is north or south, as the place is north or south of the equator; the degree of the equator, which is intersected by the brass meridian, is the longitude of the given place, which is east or west, as the place lies to the right or left of the meridian passing through London. All those places which lie immediately under the graduated edge of the meridian, from pole to pole, have the same longitude as the given place; and, if the

globe be turned round on its axis, all places passing immediately under the observed latitude, have the same

latitude as that place.

All places from 66° 28' north, to 66° 28' south latitude, having the same longitude, will have noon, or any other hour of the day, at the same time; but the length of their natural day varies in different latitudes; all places under the same latitude have the same length of day and night; but the hour of the day varies with the difference of longitude.

Example 1. Required the latitude and longitude of Pekin; also what places have the same, or nearly the same longitude, and the

same latitude, as that place.

Answer. The latitude of Pekin is about 40° N., and the longitude about 116° E.: the places having nearly the same longitude are, the island of Palawan, the eastern parts of Borneo, the island of Lombock, the western parts of New Holland, &c.; the places having nearly the same latitude are, Constantinople, Cagliari, Minorca, Toledo, Philadelphia, &c.

2. What are the latitude and longitude of Quebec? also, what other places have the same, or nearly the same, latitude and

longitude?

3. Required the latitude and longitude of Cape Comorin; also, when it is noon at Cape Comorin, at what other places is it noon likewise; and what places have the same length of day and night.

4. Required the latitude and longitude of the following places; and what other places have the same, or nearly the same, longitude and latitude at those places respectively:—

Hobart Town, Nankin, Stockholm,
Ispahan, Palermo, Washington.
Mecca, Rio Janeiro, York.

PROBLEM II. — To find the difference of latitude of any two places.

Rule. — Find the latitude of each of the given places (by Prob. I.); then, if the places are both on the same side of the equator, take the difference of their latitudes; but if they are on opposite sides, take the sum.

PROBLEM III. — To find the difference of longitude of any two places.

Rule. — Find the longitude of each of the given places (by Prob. I.); then, if the places are both on the same side of the first meridian, take the difference of their longitudes; but if they are on opposite sides, take the sum. If the sum, in the latter case, exceeds 180°, subtract it from 360°.

Example 1. What is the difference of latitude and the difference of longitude of Mexico and Port Jackson?

Answer. Difference of latitude 5330, difference of longitude

109å°.

2. Required the difference of latitude and difference of longitude of the following places:—

London and Cape Horn, Alexandria and Cadiz, St. Helena and North Cape, Mount Heckla and Vesuvius, Lisbon and Cape Farewell,
Straits of Magellan and Bhering's
Straits,
Calcutta and Naples.

PROBLEM IV. — The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place.

Rule. — Find the given longitude on the equator and bring it to the brazen meridian, then under the given latitude will be found the place required.

Example 1. What place is that whose longitude is about 17° W., and latitude $32\frac{1}{2}$ ° N.?

Answer. Madeira Isle.

2. What places have the following longitudes and latitudes?

Long. Lat.		Long.	Lat.
Long. 5° E.	52] 0 N.	102° E.	3 3 ° S.
18] E.	34 1 S.	43 W.	23 S.
30 E.	341 S. 311 N.	1491 W.	171 S.

PROBLEM V. — To find the distance on a great circle between any two places.

Rule. — Lay the graduated edge of the Quadrant of

^{*} The longitudes and latitudes, here and throughout the problems, are given to the nearest quarter of a degree.

Altitude * over both places; the degrees on the quadrant comprehended between the two places multiplied by 60 will give their distance in geographical miles, or, if multiplied by 69.2, will give the distance in English miles. †

Example 1. Required the distance between the Lizard Point and the island of Bermudas.

Answer. About 47°=2820 geographical, or 3252 English miles.
2. Required the distance in geographical and English miles between the following places:—

Cape Verd and Cape Guardafui, Pondicherry and Bencoolen, Cape Horn and Cape of Good Hope, Owhyhee and Amboyna, London and Lisbon, Stockholm and Masulipatam, Bombay and Edinburgh, North Cape and Candi.

PROBLEM VI. — To find the Antaci, Periaci, and Antipodes to the inhabitants of any place.

Def. The Anteci are those who live under the same meridian, but on opposite sides of the equator, and equally distant from it:—the Pericci are those who live on the same parallel of latitude, but under the opposite meridian:—the Antipodes are those who live in opposite hemispheres, are equally distant from the equator, and are also under opposite meridians. All these may be shown at once on the globe by the following

Rule. — Bring the poles of the globe into the horizon, and the given place to the eastern part of that circle; then, if the given place be in north latitude, observe, on the amplitude circle, how many degrees it is north of the eastern point of the horizon: the same number of degrees southward of the eastern point will show the Antacci; an equal number of degrees, counted from the west point of

A degree of the equator contains about 69.16 English miles:

69.2 is near enough the truth for common purposes.

^{*} The Quadrant of Altitude is a thin flexible strip of brass, which can be screwed to any part of the brass Meridian; and is divided into degrees, &c., corresponding to the radius of the Globe.

the horizon towards the north, will show the *Periceci*; and the same number of degrees, counted towards the south from the west, will point out the *Antipodes*. The same rule will apply if the given place be in south latitude, by reading south for north, and *vice versâ*.

Example 1. Required the anteci, perioci, and antipodes of the in-

habitants of the Cape of Good Hope.

Answer. Anteci, north of the Gulf of Sidra in the Mediterranean Sea — Perioci, in the South Pacific Ocean, east of New Zealand. — Antipodes, in the North Pacific Ocean, north-west of the island of Donna Maria Lajara.

2. Required the anteci, perieci, and antipodes to the inhabitants

of the following places: -

Moscow, Bahia, Pekin, Quebec, Jerusalem, Archangel.

PROBLEM VII. — The hour at any place being given, to find what hour it is in any other place.

Rule.—Bring the place at which the hour is given to the meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe till the other place comes to the meridian, and the index will show the required time.*

* If the difference of longitude between two places and the time at one of them be known, the time at the other may be easily found by calculation. It is noon at any place when the meridian of that place is immediately under the sun; and since the earth's rotation with respect to the sun, is performed in exactly twenty four hours, there must be a revolution of 15° of the equator in one hour of time, or, in other words, 15° of the equator will correspond to one hour of time, 1º of the equator to four minutes of time, 1' of the equator to four seconds of time, &c. Hence it follows, that the difference of longitude of any two places may be converted into time by only multiplying by 4: observing that minutes of longitude, when so multiplied, produce seconds of time, and degrees of longitude produce minutes of time. The difference of longitude in time between the two places being thus found, if that for which the answer is sought lie to the east of that at which the time is given, count the difference of time forward from the given hour; but if it lie to the west, reckon the difference of time backward from that hour, and the result will be the required time at the place proposed. Thus, suppose the difference of longitude between two places to be 88° 29', and the time at the more westerly to be two

Example 1. When it is eight o'clock in the morning at London. what time is it at Washington?

Answer. About 52 minutes past two in the morning.

2. When it is noon at London, what is the time at Rome?

- 3. When it is ten in the morning at Canton, what time is it at Jerusalem?
 - 4. When it is seven o'clock P. M. at Lima, what time is it at London?
- 5. When it is four in the afternoon at Porto Bello, what hour is it at Aberdeen, Ispahan, Sierra Leone, Algiers, Acapulco, Medina, and Naples?

PROBLEM VIII. - To find the sun's place in the ecliptic for any given day.

Rule. - Find the given day in the circle of months on the horizon, against which, in the circle of signs, will be seen the degree of the sign in which the sun is for that day. The same sign and degree in the ecliptic is the sun's place required.

Example 1. Required the sun's place in the ecliptic on the 16th of August?

Answer. The 23d degree of Leo.

2. Required the sun's place in the ecliptic on each of the following days : ---

1st January

tical on that day.*

21st March.

22d June. 20th November?

1st August,

15th October.

PROBLEM IX. — To find the sun's declination on any given day, and all the places to which he will be ver-

Rule. - Find the sun's place in the ecliptic (by Prob.

o'clock P. M. then $88^{\circ} 29' \times 4 = 5^{\circ} 53^{\circ}$ for the difference of longitude in time; which, added to the given time, because the place for which the time is sought lies to the east, gives 53m 56s past seven, or 6m 4s to eight o'clock in the evening for the time required.

As the index circle is small, and the index itself liable to be out of order, it is better to avoid using it altogether, and to count the time on the equator by the above rule. Every meridian marked on the globe counts one hour; and the degrees over, multiplied by 4, give the minutes.

* On most terrestrial globes there is a scale called the analemma. placed on one of the meridians, which shows the sun's declination for every day of the year.

VIII.), and bring it to the brazen meridian; the degree which stands immediately over the sun's place is his declination. Turn the globe on its axis, and all the places that pass under that degree will have the sun vertical on the given day.

Example 1. What is the sun's declination, and to what places will

he be verticle on the 14th of November?

Answer. His declination is about 18° S., and he will be vertical to the island of Otaheite, the New Hebrides, part of the Friendly Isles, Arica in Peru, &c.

2. What is the sun's declination, and to what places will he be vertical on each of the following days:—

24th June, 10th February. 20th March, 18th November. 15th July, 21st Dec.?

PROBLEM X. — The day of the month and hour of the day at any place being given, to find where the sun is then vertical.

Rule. — Find the sun's declination (by Prob. IX.), and mark it on the brass meridian; then bring the given place to the meridian, and set the index to the given hour. Turn the globe till the index points to twelve at noon, and the place exactly under the sun's declination on the brazen meridian will have the sun vertical at the given time.

Example 1. When it is one o'clock in the morning at London on the 20th of January, where is the sun vertical?

Answer. At New Caledonia.

2. Where is the sun vertical on the 21st of December, when it is ten in the evening at London?

3. Where is the sun vertical on the 10th of June, when it is two

in the morning at Cadiz?

4. When it is six o'clock in the morning at Rio Janeiro on the 4th

of July, where is the sun vertical?

5. When it is half past seven o'clock in the evening at New York on the 5th of September, where is the sun vertical?

PROBLEM XI. — A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find the two days of the year on which the sun will be vertical to that place.

Rule. — Find the latitude of the given place (by Prob. I.); turn the globe on its axis, and observe what two

points of the ecliptic pass under that latitude; seek those points of the ecliptic on the circle of signs on the horizon, and against them, in the circle of months, will be found the days required.*

Example 1. On what two days of the year will the sun be vertical at Barbadoes?

Answer. On the 18th of August and the 25th of April.

2. Required the two days of the year on which the sun is vertical to each of the following places:—

St. Helena, Quito, Cape Ambro,
Trincomalé, Candi, Port Royal,
Pelew Islands, Dominica, Cape St. Roque?

PROBLEM XII. — To rectify the globe for the latitude of any given place.

Rule. — Elevate the north or south pole, according as the latitude is north or south, so many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of the given place.

PROBLEM XIII. — To find at what hour the sun rises and sets, and the length of day and night, at any place not in the Frigid Zones.

Rule. — Rectify the globe for the latitude of the given place; find the sun's place in the ecliptic, bring it to the brass meridian, and set the index to twelve; bring the sun's place to the western edge of the horizon, and the index will show the time of his setting, which, doubled, will give the length of the day; turn the globe till the sun's place comes to the eastern edge of the horizon, and the index will point out the time of his rising, which, doubled, will give the length of the night.

Example 1. What time does the sun rise and set at London on the 21st of June, and what is the length of the day and night?

Answer. The sun rises about a quarter before four, and sets about

^{*} Or rather, having found the latitude of the place, observe the two days on the Analemma which pass under the same degree of latitude.

a quarter past eight; the length of the day, therefore, is sixteen and a half, and the length of the night seven and a half hours.*

2. At what time does the sun rise and set, and what is the length of the day and night, at the following places on the respective days mentioned:—

Bagdad, 4th of August, Copenhagen, 6th of Marca, Madeira, 4th of June, Quebec, 10th of October, Lima, 14th of May, Formosa, 16th of April, Barcelona, 10th of May, Falkland Isles, 12th of August, Candia, 4th of September, Berlin, 18th of November?

3. What is the length • of the longest day at each of the following places:—

Corinth.

Stockholm,

Botany Bay?

PROBLEM XIV.— The day of the month and the hour of the day at any place being given, to find all those places of the earth where the sun is then rising, those places where the sun is setting, those where it is noon, and those where it is midnight, those that have morning twilight, and those that have evening twilight.

Rule. — Find the place to which the sun is vertical at the given time (by Prob. X.), bring that place to the meridian, and elevate the pole till its altitude is equal to the sun's declination. Then to all places just along the western edge of the horizon, the sun is rising; to those along the eastern edge, he is setting; to those under that part of the brass meridian, which is above the horizon, it is noon; to those immediately under that part of the brass meridian which is below the horizon, it is midnight; those places which are below, but within eighteen degrees of, the western edge of the horizon, have morning twilight; and those below the eastern horizon, but within eighteen degrees of it, have evening twilight.

Example 1. When it is ten o'clock in the morning at London on the longest day, to what places is the sun rising, setting, &c. &c.?

Answer. It is rising at Lake Superior, St. Domingo, &c. Setting

^{*} The 21st of June is the longest day at all places in the northern hemisphere, and the 21st of December is the longest day at all places in the southern hemisphere, not within the Frigid Zones.

at Jesso, Niphon, Mindanao, Celebes, &c. Noon at Alexandria, Odessa, Petersburg, &c. Midnight near the Sandwich and Society Isles, &c. Morning twilight at Peru, Chili, Patagonia, &c.; and evening twilight at the Pelew Islands, Moluccas, the western coast of New Holland, &c.

2. When it is six o'clock in the morning at Minorca on the 17th of

December, where is the sun rising, setting, &c.

3. To what places is the sun rising, to what places is it setting, where is it noon, where is it midnight, &c. on the 10th of December, when it is eight o'clock in the evening at London?

4. When it is midnight at Juan Fernandez on the 10th of June, where is it mid-day, and where is the sun rising, setting, and on the

meridian?

PROBLEM XV. — To find the length of total day at any place within the polar circles.

Rule. — Rectify the globe for the latitude of the given place. Turn it on its axis, and observe the two points of the ecliptic, which come exactly to the north or south points of the horizon, according as the latitude of the given place is north or south. Find the corresponding two days in the circle of months on the horizon; the first is that on which total day begins, the second that on which it ends, and the interval between them the time of its continuance.

Example 1. What is the length of continual sunshine in the north of Spitzbergen, latitude 80\frac{1}{2}° north?

Answer. Continual day begins on the 14th of April, and ends on the 28th of August, being about 136 days, of 24 hours each.

2. Required the length of continual day at Lancaster Sound?

3. How long does the sun continue to shine without setting at the following places:—

Melville Island, North Cape, New Siberia?

PROBLEM XVI. — To find the sun's meridian altitude at any place on any given day.

Rule. — Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place. Find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and bring it to the brass meridian; the number of degrees on the meridian between the horizon and the sun's place is the altitude required.

Example 1. What is the sun's meridian altitude at London on the 21st of December?

Answer. 15°.

2. Required the sun's meridian altitude at the following places on the respective days mentioned:—

Madras on the 4th of June, Quito on the 20th of March, Rome on Christmas-day, Cape Horn on the 12th of May, Cape of Good Hope 4th of April, Barcelona on the 21st of Dec.

PROBLEM XVII. — To find the sun's altitude and azimuth at any place, the day and hour being given.

Rule.— Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place, and screw the quadrant of altitude on the brass meridian over that latitude: bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brass meridian, and set the index to 12; turn the globe till the index points to the given hour; bring the graduated edge of the quadrant to coincide with the sun's place: then the number of degrees on the quadrant, counting from the horizon to the sun's place, will be the sun's altitude, and the number of degrees on the horizon reckoned from the north or south point thereof to the graduated edge of the quadrant will show the azimuth.

Example 1. What is the sun's altitude and azimuth at the Cape of Good Hope at half past three o'clock P. M., on the 14th of January?

Answer. The altitude is 43°, and the azimuth 90°, or due west.

2. What is the sun's altitude and azimuth at the following places, the day of the month and hour of the day at each being as under:—

London at ten o'clock in the morning on the 10th of May, Gibraltar at two o'clock in the afternoon on the 27th of July, Nankin at eight o'clock in the morning on the 20th of March, Rome at eleven o'clock in the morning on the 15th of August?

PROBLEM XVIII. — To find the sun's amplitude, and the point of the compass towards which he rises or sets on a given day at any place.

Rule. — Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place, and bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the eastern semicircle of the horizon, and opposite to it, in the respective circles, will be seen the amplitude, and the point

of the compass on which he rises: bring the sun's place to the western semicircle, and opposite to it will be seen the amplitude, and the point of the compass on which he sets.

Example 1. What is the sun's amplitude at London on the 21st of June?

Answer. 40° to the north of the east at rising, and 40° north of the west at setting.

2. Required the amplitude of the sun at the following places on the respective days mentioned:—

Washington on the 10th of December, Mecca on the 20th of March, Mindanao on the 4th of July, Cape Palmas on the 4th of August?

3. On what points of the compass does the sun rise and set on the 4th of May at Boston in America?

PROBLEM XIX.—The day of the month and the Sun's amplitude being given, to find the latitude of the place.

Rule.—Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the eastern or western side of the horizon, according to the amplitude given, and elevate or depress the pole till the sun's place coincides with the given amplitude on the horizon—then the height of the pole will show the latitude of the place.

Example 1. The sun's amplitude at rising was observed to be about 40° south of the east on the 21st of December; required the latitude of the place?

Answer. 52° north.

- 2. The sun's amplitude was observed to be 25° from the east towards the north, when its declination was 20° north; required the latitude?
- 3. On the 21st of June the sun was observed to rise on the E.N. E. point of the horizon; what was the latitude of the place of observation?
- 4. The sun's amplitude at setting on the 18th of December was observed to be S. W.; what was the latitude of the place of observation?

PROBLEM XX. — The time of a lunar eclipse being given to find all those places to which it is visible.

Rule.—Find the place to which the sun is vertical at the given time; bring it to the meridian, and elevate the pole for the latitude of that place; then the eclipse will be visible at all those places which are below the horizon. If the antipodes of the place to which the sun is vertical be brought into the zenith, the eclipse will be visible to all the places then above the horizon. The antipodes may be brought into the zenith by merely elevating the opposite pole as many degrees as are equal to the sun's declination, and turning the globe half round on its axis.

Example 1. On the 31st of May, 1844, there was a total eclipse of the moon at 50 min. past ten o'clock in the evening, Greenwich time; where was it visible?

Answer. It was visible to nearly the whole of Europe; the entire continent of Africa, with the adjacent islands; and to Arabia, Persia, Hindostan, &c.

2. There was a total eclipse of the moon on the 24th of November, 1844, at 44 min. past eleven o'clock in the evening; where was it visible?

3. A partial eclipse of the moon happened on the 6th of December 1843, at 10 min, past twelve o'clock at night; where was it visible?

PROBLEMS ON THE CELESTIAL GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1.—To find the right ascension and declination of the sun or a star.*

Def.—The right ascension of any celestial body is its distance from the first point of Aries, counted on the equinoctial; and its declination is its distance from the equinoctial, north or south, counted on the meridian passing through the body. The right ascension is usually reckoned in time, one hour corresponding to 15°. Thus,

^{*} The right ascensions and declinations, latitudes and longitudes, of the moon and planets, must be found in the Nautical Almanuc, or in an Ephemeris.

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instead of saying, right ascension 263° 48', it is usual to say, right ascension 17 hours 35 minutes 12 seconds.

Rule.—Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic, or the given star, to that part of the brass meridian which is numbered from the equinoctial towards the poles; the degree immediately over it on the brass meridian, is the declination; the time or number of the degrees on the equinoctial, between the brass meridian and the first point of Aries, is the right ascension.

Example 1. Required the right ascension and declination of the star a, Aldebaran, in Taurus?

Answer. Right ascension 4 h. 27 m. or 67°, declination 16° north.

2. Required the right ascension and declination of the following stars:—

a, Altair, in Aquila, a, Capella, in Auriga, β, Rigel, in Orion, β, Mirach, in Andromeda, a, Achernar, in Eridanus, δ, Algorab, in Corvus.

PROBLEM II. — To find the latitude and longitude of a star.

Def. — The longitude of any celestial body is its distance from the first point of Aries, counted on the ecliptic; and its latitude is its distance from the ecliptic, north or south, counted on a great circle passing through the body, and perpendicular to the ecliptic. The right ascensions and longitudes of celestial objects are continued eastward quite round the globe, and reckoned from 0° to 360°.

Rule. — Place the upper end of the quadrant of latitude on the north or south pole of the ecliptic, as the star is north or south of that line, and bring its graduated edge to the star; the number of degrees between the ecliptic and the star is the latitude, and the number of degrees on the ecliptic, reckoned from the first point of Aries to the quadrant, is the longitude of the star.

Example 1. Required the latitude and longitude of a, Deneb, in Cygnus?

Answer. Latitude 60° north, and longitude 11° 4°, or 4° in Pisces, or 334° from the first point of Aries.

2. Required the latitudes and the longitudes of the following stars:—

α,	Fomalhaut in the S. Fish,	
α.	Markab, in Pegasus.	

β, Pollux, in Gemini,

a, Canopus, in Argo Navis, γ , Bellatrix, in Orion.

a, Antares, in Scorpio,

, Bellatrix

PROBLEM III. — The right ascension and declination of any star, planet, comet, &c. being given, to find its place on the globe.

Rule.—Bring the given degree of right ascension to the meridian, then under the given declination will be found the star. &c.

Example 1. Required the star whose right ascension is 211°, and declination 20° north?

Answer. a, Arcturus, in Böotes.

2. Required the stars whose right ascensions or declinations are as under:—

under	Right Ascensions.	Declinations
	2 57 or 44°	40° N.
Tilko-	5 7- 761	81 S.
. certy	16 20-244	26 S.
-	22 49-342	301 S.
	$10 51 - 162\frac{1}{2}$	57 N.
- There's	The strict I have been severe	

PROBLEM IV. — The latitude and longitude of a star, planet, &c. given, to find its place on the globe.

Rule. — Place the division of the quadrant, marked o, on the given longitude in the ecliptic, and the upper end on the pole of the ecliptic; then under the given latitude on the graduated edge of the quadrant will be found the star or place of the planet, &c.

Example 1. The moon's longitude at midnight on the 13th of February, 1845, was 60° 44′, and the latitude 0° 26′ S.; what was her place on the globe or in the heavens?

Answer. She was in the constellation Taurus.

2. What stars have the following longitudes and latitudes:-

Longitudes,	Latitudes.
3510	910 N.
671	51 S.
1111	61 N.
1471	1 N.

3. The longitude of Jupiter on the 1st of July, 1846, was 631°, and his latitude 44′ 32″ S.; required his place on the globe?

PROBLEM V. — The latitude of a place, day of the month, and hour being given, to represent by the celestial globe the face of the heavens at that time.

Rule. — Elevate the pole so many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of the place; find the sun's place in the ecliptic, bring it to the brass meridian, and set the index to twelve; turn the globe till the index points to the given hour, and the globe will present a view of the constellations corresponding with the state of the heavens at the time proposed.

Example 1. Required the state of the heavens for eight o'clock in

the evening at London on the 1st of November?

Answer. Lacerta is in the zenith, from which point to the north pole the meridian is occupied by Cepheus. Between the pole and the horizon are the tail of Hydra and Ursa Major. From the zenith to the south, Pegasus, Aquarius, and Pisces Australis are on the meridian. Andromeda, Triangula, Aries, and Taurus, are met with from the zenith to the eastern point of the horizon; and from the zenith to the western point we find Cygnus, Lyra, Hercules, and Ophiuchus. Between the zenith and the N.E. quarter are Cassiopia. Camelopardalus, and Auriga. From the zenith between the E. and S.E. are part of Andromeda, Triangulum, Aries, and part of Certus. From the zenith, and between the S.E. and S., are part of Pegasus, Pisces. and part of Aquarius and Cetus. From the zenith, and between the S. and S.W., are Delphinus, Equuleus, part of Aquarius, and the whole of Capricornus. From the zenith, and between the S. W. and W., are Cygnus, Lyra, Vulpecula, Aquila, Taurus, Poniatowski, part of Antinous and Orphiuchus. From the zenith, and between the W. and N.W., are part of Draco, Hercules, Corona Borealis, and Böotes. From the zenith, and between the N.W. and N., are Ursa Minor. part of Draco, and Canis Major, and the whole of Canis Venatici.* Between the zenith and the N. E. and E. are found Andromeda. Perseus, and Taurus, with the Hyades and Pleiades.

[•] In order to become acquainted with the constellations in the heavens, it will be necessary after solving the problem as above, to fix the globe in that position in its stand, and to remove the whole into the open air; then to place it due north and south by a meridian line, or a mariner's compass, making due allowance for the variation. Then, if the flat end of a pencil be placed on a star upon the globe, so as to point towards its centre, the other end will point to that particular star in the heavens.

2. Required the state of the heavens at London on the following days at the time specified:—

January 21st, at eight in the evening; February 28th, at ten at

night; September 6th, at eight o'clock in the evening?

3. Required the state of the heavens at the Cape of Good Hope on the 15th of September, at eleven o'clock at night?

PROBLEM VI. — To find when any star, planet *, &c. will rise, culminate, or set, at any given place.

Rule. — Elevate the pole so many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of the place; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to twelve. Turn the globe till the star or place of the planet comes to the eastern verge of the horizon, and the index will show the time of its rising; bring it to the meridian, and the index will show the time of its culminating; continue the motion of the globe till it arrives at the western edge of the horizon, and the index will, in like manner, show the time of its setting.

Obs. When the globe is elevated for the latitude of the given place, it will be found that, within a certain distance of the elevated pole, a number of stars never set; while a number of stars, equally distant from the depressed pole, never rise. The former are said to be within the circle of perpetual apparition, and the latter within the circle of perpetual occultation, of that place.

Example 1. At what time does Sirius rise, culminate, and set, on

the 31st of January, at London?

Answer. It rises about a quarter past five in the evening, culminates about a quarter before ten, and sets about a quarter past two in the morning.

2. At what time does Procyon rise, culminate, and set at Paris, on

the 12th of September?

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3. On the 1st of October, 1845, the right ascension of Mars will be 21 hrs. 43 min., and his declination 18° 16' S.; what time will he rise, culminate, and set at Greenwich on that day?

^{*} The right ascension and declination (or latitude and longitude) of a planet must be taken from an ephemeris, and its place on the globe determined by Prob. III. or IV.

PROBLEM VII. — To find how many hours any star is above the horizon of any given place, or the length of its diurnal arc at that place.

Rule. — Elevate the pole for the latitude of the place; bring the star to the eastern edge of the horizon, and set the index to twelve; turn the globe westward till the star comes to the western edge of the horizon, and the number of hours passed over by the index is the length of the diurnal arc of that star.

 $\boldsymbol{\textit{Example}}$ 1. How long does $\boldsymbol{\textit{Arcturus}}$ continue above the horizon of London?

Answer. About fifteen hours and a half.

2. How many hours do the following stars continue above the horizon of London?

a Castor, in Gemini; & Deneb, in Leo; & Albireo, in Cygnus.

3. How long is a Menkur, in Cetes, above the horizon of Lisbon?

VOCABULARY

OF

PROPER NAMES.

Anlborg, Alburgum, a city and scaport is celebrated for the memorable siege of Denmark. Lat. 570 2' 46" N., long. which it has sustained.

9° 55' 38" E. Pop. 7500.

Adrianople, Adrinople, Edgench (Hn.

Aarhuus, a seaport town of Denmark, N. Jütland. Lat. 560 9' 27" N., long. 10º 12' 46" E.

10° 12' 46" E. Pop. 8000.

Abbeville, Abatis-Villa, a fortified town of France, dep. Somme. It is well built,

but dirty.

Aberdeen, a parl. and munic. bor. and seaport, cap. co. of same name. Lat. of observatory, 57° 8′ 9″ N., long. 2° 5′ 7″ W. Pop. of parl. bor. (1841) 63,262. The parl, bor, consists of two towns, viz. Old Aberdeen and New Aberdeen. Old Aber-

deen; pop. 36,688. Abo, a city and seaport of Russia in Aco, a city and season of the Aurajoki, near its entrance into the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 600 26' 86" N., long. 220' 19' E. Pop. 14,000, mostly of Swedish descent.

Aboukir, Canopus, a vil. of Egypt, cele-brated for Nelson's victory over the

French fleet, 1st Aug. 1798.

Abyssinia, Abessinia, or Habesh, a country of E. Africa, extending between lat. 7° 40' and 16° 40' N., and long. 34° 20' and 43° 20' E.

Acapulco, a seaport town, Mexican confed. on the Pacific. Lat. 16° 50' N. 10ng. 99° 48' W. Pop. 4000. Celebrated during the Spanish dominion in Mexico for the annual departure of the galleon, a large vessel richly laden with goods and specie for Manilla.

Achin (Dutch Atchin, properly Atjih), a town of Sumatra, near its NW. extremity, cap. of an indep. kingdom of same name, on a river near the sea. Lat. 50 34'

N., long. 950 34' E.

Acre, Akka or St. Jean d' Acre, Acco or Ptolemais, a fortified city and seaport of

Adrianople, Adrinople, Edreneh (Hadrianopolis), a city of European Turkey, prov. Rumelia. Lat. 41° 41' 26" N., long. 26° 35' 41" E. Pop. 100,000.

Afghanistan (Afghan-land), an extensive inland country of Asia, lying between lat. 280 50' and 360 30' N. and iong. 620 and 720 30' E. Area estimated at 225,000 sq. m. and the pop. at about 5,000,000.

Agades, a large city of central Africa cap. kgdm. of Asben. Lat. 18° 10' N. long. 13° E.

Aggershuus, a stift or prov. of Norway, cap. Christiania, situate between lat. 58° 56' and 62° 58' N. and long. 8 and 12° E. Pop. (1835) 512,515.

Agricourt or Azincourt, a vil. in France, dep. Pas-de-Calais, 13 m. NW. St. Pol., near which, on the 25th October, 1415, the English, under Henry V., totally defeated a vastly superior French

Agra, a province and district of British India. The province lies N. of the Ner-buddah river, between 25° & 28° N. lat. Area about 45,000 sq. m. Pop. from 6 to 7 millions.

Aix-la-Chapelle, Aquis-Granum (German Aachen), a frontier city of Rhenish Prussia, cap. gov. Pop. 45,600. In the market - place is a bronze statue of Charlemagne, whose favourite residence was here, and whose successors in the empire were crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle until the 16th century.

Ajmere (Rajpootana), a prov. of Hindostan, presid. Bengal, situated between 24° and 28° N. lat.

Albania, an extensive prov. of Euro-Syria, cap. pash. on a promontory at the pean Turkey, situated (including Monte-foot of Mt. Carmel. Lat. 32° 55′ N. and long. 35° 5′ E. Pop. 10,000 (?). Acre long. 19° and 12° 30′ E.

Albany, a city of the U. S., N. Amer., cap. state N. York and co. Albany, on the Hudson. Pop. (1840) 33,271.

Alcantara (Arab. "the bridge"), a fortified town of Spain, Estremadura, on

the Tagus. Pop. 4273. Alderney, or Aurigny, Riduna, an isl. in the English Channel, off the coast of Normandy, belonging to Great Britain. Lat. of telegraph 49° 41′ 5″ N, long. 2° 13′ 7″ W. Circumf. about 8 m. Pop.

Aleppo (Haleb-es-Shabba), Chalybon and Berœa, a city of Asiat. Turkey, cap. pash in the N. of Syria, and one of the principal emporiums of the Ottoman Emp., on the Koeik. Lat. 36° 11' N., long. 37° 10' E. Pop. estimated at from 60,000 to 85,000.

Alessandria (called "Della-Paglia" from its first houses having been roofed with straw), a fortified city of Pledmont, cap. div., in a sterile plain, on the Tenaro. Pop. of town 18,995, with suburbs,

39,853

Alexandria (so called from its founder Alexander the Great), a celebrated city and seaport of Egypt, near the western-most branch of the Nile, on the Medi-terranean. Lat. of Pharos 39 1 18 '9' ', long. 29° 53' E. Pop. about 60,000, including 8000 troops and the artizans employed in the arsenal.

Algezirah, the Arab name of Mesopo-

tamia

Algiers (Al-gensir "the islands." French Alger), a famous city and seaport of Africa, cap. of the French territory of Algeria, built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the W. side of a bay of the same name in the Mediterr. Lat. of light-house 36° 47' 20" N., long. 3° 4' 32" E. Pop. (1847), including suburbs and comm., 97,389, of whom 72,393 were Europeans, and 24,496 natives.

Alicante, Lucuntum, a fortified city and seaport of Spain, cap. prov. of same name, on a bay in the Mediterranean. Lat. of castle 38° 20' N., long. 0° 27' W.

Pop. (1844) 19,021.

Allahabad, one of the old Mohammedan provinces or sowbahs of Hindostan, between lat. 240 and 260 N., and long. 79° and 83° E.

Almeida, a fortified town of Portugal, prov. Beira, on the Coa. Pop. 6200.

Alsace (Germ. Elsass), one of the old German provs., now belongs to France, and forms the deps. Haut and Bas-Rhin (Upper and Lower Rhine).

Audorf, a town of Germany, Baden circle, Up. Rhine. Pop. 1400.

Apiboyna, an island belonging to the

Dutch in the E. archipelago, off the SW. is on the N. coast of this co.

Albany, a fort and dist. (also) a riv. of extremity of Ceram, between lat. 30 25' British N. America. and 3° 48' S., and long. 127° 57' and 128° 27' E. Length 35 m., average 128° 27' B. Length 35 m., average breadth 10 m. Pop. (1841) 29,592, mostly Malays, with some Chinese, besides the Dutch residents.

Amherst, a seaport town of the British territ, in Further India, cap, of the most N. of the Tenasserim provs. and their ch. milit. station on Amherst penins. Lat. 16° 4′ 48″ N., long. 97° 45′ 24″ E. Pop. in 1838, 5000 (?).

Amiens, Ambianum, an anc. city of France, cap. dep. Somme (and formerly of all Picardy). Pop. (1846) 41,332. In the Hotel de Ville, the treaty of "the peace of Amiens" was signed March 27. 1802.

Amour (St.), a town of France, dep. Jura, cap. cant., pop. (1846) 1,939.

Amsterdam, one of the most important Antiseram, one of the most important cities in Europe, cap. of the prov. of N. Holland, and of the kingdom of the Netherlands, is built in the form of a creecent, on the Amstel at its entrance into the Y or Ye. Lat. of W. steeple 59° 22° 5° N. long. 40° 53° 2° B. Pop. (1841) 211,349., of whom 23,000 were

Amsterdam, a town of U.S. N. America, New York, co. Montgomery. 5833.

Ancona, a marit. town of Italy, on the Adriatic. Lat. 43° 37' 42" N., long. 13° 30' 35" E. Pop. 36,000, exclu. of about 5000 Jews, who inhabit a separate quarter.

Angers, Juliomagus, a fortified city of France, cap. dep. Maine-et-Loire. Lat. of cathed. 47° 28' 17" N., long. 0° 33' 10" W. Pop (1846) 36,392.

Anglesey, or Angleses, an isld. and co. . Wales, in the Irish Sea, connected with co. Carnarvon, across Menai Strait, by the Menai Suspension Bridge, and the Britannia Tubular Bridge. Area 173,440 acres. Inhab. houses 11,487. Pop. 50,891.

Angola, a state of W. Africa, Lower Guinea, between lat. 80 and 100 S.

Angora, or Enguri, Ancyra, a city of Asia Minor, on a hill. Lat. 35° 56' 30" N., long. 32° 50' E. Pop. estimated at 10,000 Mohamms., 5000 Armenians and Greeks, and 200 Jews.

Annapolis, a town and port of the U. S. N. America, cap. state Maryland. Pop. 2792.

Annecy, a town of the Sardinian dom .. div. Savoy, cap. prov. Genevois. Pop. 9000.

Anspack (Germ. Ansback), a fortified

city of Bavaria. Pop. 16,000.

Antrim, the NE. most co. of Ireland,
Ulster. The famous Giant's Causeway

Antwerp (Flem. Antwerpen, Fr. An-) pers), a famous fortified city of Belgium, and the centre of its foreign trade, cap. prov. of same name on r. b. of Scheldt. Lat. of cathed. 51° 13' 2" N., long. 4°

24' 2" E. Pop. (1847) 86,000. Aracan or Arracan, a British prov. of

Further India, presid. Bengal, extending along the E. side of the Bay of Bengal, between lat 16° and 22° 30′ N., and long. 92° and 94° E. Area estim, at 16,500 sq. m. Pop. (1839) 247,765.

Archangel or Arkhangel, an archiepiscopal and commercial

copal and commercial city of Russia, cap. gov. of same name, on rt. bk. of the Dwina, near its mouth in the White Sea, and in lat. 64 32 8' long., and 40° 33' E. l'op. 25,000, or, according to Balbi (1844), only 10,500.

Archipelago, a term formerly applied exclusively to the islands of the Egean Sea, but now to any collection of conti-

guous islands.

Arctic Highlands, a region of N. America, between Hudson's Sea and the mouth of the Mackenzie river.

Ardennes (Forest of), Sylva Arduenna. This region, familiar to the readers of Shakspeare, is a vast system of heights and forests, embracing part of Belgium, the Gd. Duchy of Low-Rhine, and the N. of France.

Arkansas, one of the U. States of N. America; between lat. 33° and 36° 30' N., and long. 89° 30' and 94° 30' W.

Arles (Arclas or Arclate), a city and river-port of France, dep. Bouches-du-Rhône, cap. arrond., on the lt. bk. of

the princip, branch of the Rhône. Armenia (the Minni of the Scriptures).

a country of W. Asia.

Ashantce, a country of Africa, and the most powerful native state of Upper Guinea, between lat. 6° and 8° N., long., 0° and 3° W. Pop. probably 1,000,000 (?).

Assyria, the name of the first great empire of antiquity celebrated in holy writ. Assyria Proper was a region E. of the Tigris, the cap. Nineveh, and derived its name from Asshur, the second

Astrakkan or Astracan, a gov. and administrative prov. of Russia, between lat. 45° and 49° 50' N., and long. 43° 30' and 51° E. Area 50,000 sq. m. Pop. (1846) 284,400. The climate is excessively hot in summer, and equally cold in winter.

Asturias, a division of Spain which was formed in 1833 the prov. of Oviedo. Pop. (1833) 434,635.

Athens, Athenæ, the capital of the kingdom of Greece, or Hellas, and of

the gov. of Attica.

Greeks, a celebrated mountain of Greece dean empire, in an extensive plain ou

at the extremity of the peninsula of Chalcis

Ava (Acng-wa, "a fish pond") a city formerly capital of the Burmese do-minion, on the Irrawadi, 350 m. N. Rangoon. Lat. 21° 51' N., long. 95°

58' 10" E.

Auckland, the capital town of New Zealand, in the N. part of N. Island, at the head of Waitimata bay. Pop. (1844) 2754. Also

Auckland Islands, a group of one large and several small islands, in the S. Pacific ocean, S. New Zealand, lat. 500 48'

S., long. 1660 42' E.

Averno, Lake of, (Avernus, Gr. Aceros " without a bird") a famous lake, 10 m. W. Naples, near the bay of Baiæ. It occupies the crater of an extinct volcano. about half a mile in diameter, is very

deep, and has no outlet.

Augsburg, Augusta Vindilicorum, a city of Bavaria, capital cire. Swabia (or Ober-Donau) at the confluence of the rivers Lech and Wer-tach, lat. (of St. Ulric's church) 48° 21′ 44″ N., long. 10° 54′ 29″ E. Pop. 37,000, of whom 22,000 are Catholics.

Avignon, Avenio, a comm. and city of S. France, cap. dep. Vaucluse, on l. bank of the Rhône. Pop. (1846) 26,185. Avranches, Abrancæ, a com. and town of France, dep. Manche. Pop.

(1846) 7,247.

Austerlitz (Morav. Slawkow), a small seignorial town of Moravia, circ. and 12 m. ESE. Brünn, on the Littawa, with 2400 inhabs. Celebrated for the victory 2400 inhabs. Celebrated for the victory gained by Napoleon over the Emperors of Austria and Russia, 2nd Dec. 1805. Also Austeritiz, a tnshp. of U. S. N. Amer. New York, co. Colom., 31 m. SSW. Albany. Pop. 2091.

Azamor, a fortified, seaport town of

Marocco, on the Atlantic. Lat. 330 17'

77" N., long. 80 15" M.
Azores, or Western Islands (Portug. Azores, or Western Islands (Portug. Acores), a group of 9 islands in the N. Atlantic Ocean, between lat. 360 57' and 390 45" N., and long. 240 55' and 310 15' W., belonging to Portugal, from which the rest differ the Nortugal. they are distant about 800 m. W.

Azov, or Azof (Tanais), a town and fort of Russia, in a detached part of the gov. Tekaterinoslav. Pop. now reduced to about 1200, in consequence of the shallowing of its port.

Bab-el-Mandeb (" The gate of tears") a strait uniting the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

Babylon, the earliest post-diluvial city, and the oldest in the world of which Alhos, called Agion Oros, Monte-Santo there are any traces remaining. Anor the holy mountain by the modern ciently the capital of the Babylonia-Chal-

The modern town | the Euphrates riv.

the Euphrates IV. The modern town Hillah occupies a portion of its site. Lat. 22° 28' 30' N., long. 44° 9' 45" E. Badajos, or Badajoz (pron. Badahos), Pax-Augusta, a strongly fortified city of Spain, cap. prov. of same name. Pop. Spain, cap. prov. of same name. Pop. (1844) 12,000. Badajoz was taken by the French, under Soult, on the 10th March, 1811, and by the English troops under Wellington 6th April 1812. It is the birth-place of the painter Morales.

Baffin Sea (erroneously styled a Bay), a sea of N. America, between Greenland and the land or islands N. of Hudson's Bay, extend from lat. 68° to 78° N. and long. 55° to 80° E. The sea was discovered by the English navigator Baffin in 1616, while in search of a passage to the

Pacific.

Bagdad, a city of Asiatic Turkey, cap. oagaaa, a city of Asiatic Turkey, cap-of above pashalic, and formerly of the Saracen Caliphate, on the Tigris. Lat. 33° 19' 40" N. long., 44° 24' 45" E. Pos. 65,000 (?), mostly Arabs and Turks. Also, Bagdad, Pashalic of (Chaldrea Mercatangles) sopotamia) an extensive region of Asiatic Turkey, of which it forms the S. E. portion, mostly between lat. 30° and 38° N. and long. 40° and 48° E.

Bahar or Behar, one of the old Mo-hammedan provs. of India, occupying part of the Ganges, and traversed by this riv., which divides it in two nearly equal por-tions, between lat. 22° and 27° N. long.

83° and 87° E.

83° and 87° E.

Bahia (San Salvador de), a city and
seaport of Brazil, formerly its cap., now
cap. prov., on the Bahia-de-Todos-osSantos, lat. of light-house 13° 0′ 7″ S.
long. 38° 31′ 7″ W. Pop. (1844) 100,000.

Baltimore, co. U. S. N. America,
Maryland Area 900 square m. Pop.:
whites 105,379. Slaves 7505, free colour

21,453. cap. Baltimore, on the left b. of the Potapsco river. Lat. 39° 17′ N., long. 76° 36′ W. Pop. 102,313.

Bambarra, an independent state of Western Africa, Soudan, mostly between

lat. 12° and 14° N. and long. 5° and 9° W. Banca, an island of the Malay Archipelago, off the NE. coast of Sumatra, lat. 2º 20' S., long. 106° E. Estimated area 3200 sq. m. and pop. 160,000. It is remarkable from its abundant produce of tin. Banca is also the name of a small island, 12 m. NE. Celebes.

Banda Isles, a group of 12 small, but important, islands, Malucca Archip., belonging to the Dutch, lat. 4° 30' S., long. 129° 50' E., 50 m. S. Ceram. Pop. (1840) 4065. They are all lofty and volcanic.

Bangalore, a large and strongly fortified town, S. India, Mysore dom., on a table land, nearly 8000 ft. in elevation. It was taken by the British under Lord Cornwallis in 1791.

Barbados, or Barbadoes, the most E. of the W. India islds. belonging to Great Britain, Windward group, in the Atlantic, 105 m. B. St. Vincent. Lat. 13° 4' N., long. 59° 37' W.

Barbary (Mauritania, Numidia, Africa Propria, Cyrenaica) an extensive region, comprising all the N. portion of Africa, from Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean, and from the Mediteranean to the Greater Atlas, and extending between lat. 250 and 37° N. and long. 10° and 25° E.

Barca, Cyrenaica, a maritime region of N. Africa, between lat. 30° and 33° N.

and long. 200 and 250 E.

Barcelona, Barcino, a strongly fortified city and sea-port of Spain, cap. prov. of same name, and formerly cap. of Catalonia on the Mediterranean. Lat. (Mount-jouy) 41° 21′ 7″ N., long. 2° 10′ E. Pop. (1845) 112,046.

Basel, or Basle (Germ. Basel, Fr. Bâle), a city in the N. of Switzerland, cap. of

Bale Ville, on the Rhine

Bassorah, or Basra, Balsora, Bussorah (Arab. "a margin"), a frontier city and river port of Asiatic Turkey, pash. Bag-dad, on the Shat-el-Arab, river of tha Arabs, formed by the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris, 70 m. from its mouth in the Persian Gulf. Lat. 30° 30' N., long. 47° 34' 15" E. Pop. usually estimated at 60,000.

Bastia, a fortified scaport town, and formerly the cap. of Corsica, on its NE. coast. Pop. (1846) 12,571.

Batavia, a city and scaport of Java, cap, of the Dutch possessions in the E., and of residency of same name at the mouth of the Jaccatra river, on the N. coast of the island. Lat. 6° 8′ S. long. 106° 50′ E. Pop. (1832) 118,300. Also. Batavia two tushps. of the U. S. N. America.

Bath (Aquæ Solis), a city and parl. and municipal borough of England, cap. co. Somerset, on the Avon. Lat. 51°25′ N., long. 2º 2º W. Area of borough 980 acres. Pop. 52,346; but this number is in summer frequently augmented by 14,000 visitors.

Bavaria, Kingdom of (Germ. Bayers, or Baiern), a state of central Europe, forming part of the Germanic Confeder-

ation, cap. München (Munich).

Bayonne, Lapurdum, a fortified city of France, near its SW. extremity, dep. B. Pyrénées. Lat. of cathedral 43°22'2'' N., long. 1° 28' 33" W. Pop. (1846) N., lo 13,850.

Begharmi, a country centre of Africa, Soudan SE. of Lake Tchad, situated with its cap. town Mesua, near lat. 120

N., long. 19° E.

Behring Island, the most W. of the Aleutian Isls., N. Pacific. Lat 550 22

N., long. 1660 E., and where Behring | Also, Benin, a town of W. Africa, cap. was wrecked and died in 1741. Also, Behring's Sea, is that part of the N. Pacific Ocean between the Aleutian Isls. in lat. 550, and Behring Strait in 660 N., by which latter it communicates with the Atlantic Ocean. Also Behring Strait. the channel which separates Asia and America at their nearest approach to each other, and connects the Arctic with the Pacific Ocean.

Betra, or Beyra, a prov. of Portugal, between lat. 39° 30' and 41° 30' N., and long. 6° 30' and 9° 50' W. Area 5817

sq. m. Pop. (1841) 615,238.

aq. m. Pop. (1841) 615,238.

Belfast, a parl and munic. bor., and
manuf. and seaport town of Ireland,
Ulster, co. Antim, at the head of Belfast Lough, where it receives the Lagan,
about 12 m. from the Irish Sea. Lat.
54° 36′ 8″ N., long. 5° 55′ 53″ W. Area
of parl. bor. 1871 acres. Pop. of do,
75,308, of whom 6697 are in the suburbs
of Ballymacarret. co. Down. with which of Ballymacarret, co. Down, with which it communicates by 3 bridges across the Lagan.

Belgrade, Singidunum, an important fortified city of Servia, on r. b. of Danube, at the confluence of the Save. Lat. 449 47 57" N., long. 200 28' 14" E.

Pop. 30,000.

Benares, a dist. of British India, presid. Bengal, situated between lat. 24° 25' N., and between the rivers Ganges and Sye. The district was ceded to Britain in 1773. Area 2350 sq. m. Pop. 3,000,000. Also Benares, Uaranashi, a large and famous Benares, Uaranashi, a large and famous city of Hindostan, and which may be considered its Hindoo (as Delhi was its Mohammedan, and Calcutta is its British) capital. It is the cap. of a division of the Bengal presid., and of above dist., on the left bank of the Ganges. Lat. of observatory, 25° 18′ 33″ N., long. 82° 55′ 52″ E

Bencoolen (Dutch Benkoelen), a residency and seaport town of the Dutch E. Indies, on the W. coast of the island Sumatra. Pop. of residency 94,000, of

town 12,000.

Benevento, Beneventum, a city of S Italy, cap. deleg. of the Pontiff., stands on a hill near the confluence of the Calore and Sabato. Pop. 16,500. Under the Lombards, Benevento was the cap. of a powerful duchy; in 1806, Napoleon erected it into a principality for Talleyrand; it was restored to the Pope in 1814. Near it, in 1226, the battle was fought in which Charles of Anjou defeated Manfred, king of Naples, who lost his life in the action.

Benin, a marit. kingdom of W. Africa, between lat 4° and 9° N., and long. 4° and 8° E. The export of slaves is said to be carried on here to a great extent.

above state, on the Benin river, 70 m. above its mouth, in the Bight of Benin. Lat. 6° 20" N., long. 5° 50' E. Pop. estimated at 15,000. Also, Benin, or Formosa, a river of W. Africa, being the W. arm of the Niger at its Delta.

Bergen, a fortified city and seaport of Norway, cap. prov. on a peninsula at the end of a deep bay, on the Atlantic. Lat. of castle, 60° 24' N., long. 5° 18' E. Pop. (1845) 25,611. Also, Bergen, a town of Prussian Pomerania. Also, Bergen, a co. U.S. N. America, in NE. of New Jersey.

Bergen-op-Zoom, a strongly fortified town of the Netherlands, cap. canton, prov. N. Brabant, on the Zoom, near its junction with the E. Scheldt, 22 m. WSW. Breda. Lat. 510 29' 7" N., long. 40 17' 5" Pop. (1849) 7451.

Bermuda, The Bermuda's, or Somer's Islands, in the west of the Atlantic.

Bern, or Berne (Canton), a state or central Europe, one of the three vorort, or governing cantons of the Swiss Confederation, situated between lat. 460 20 and 47° 80' N., and long. 6° 50' and 8° 27' E. Also, Bern, a town of Switzerland, cap. canton of same name. Pop. (1837)

Bethlehem (Beit-el-Lehm, the "house of bread"), a famous city of Palestine, which, though insignificant in point of size, will be ever memorable as the birth-place of the founder of Christianity. It stands on the mountain chain of Anti-Libanus, 51 m. SW. Jerusalem. Pop. said to be 3,000, nearly all Christians, - a bold and hardy race, who has successfully resisted Turkish oppression. Also Bethichem, a town of the U.S. N. Amer. Pennsyl. on the Lehigh, r. 50 m. WNW. Philadelphia. Pop. 2,989.

Bilboa, a city and principal port of the N. of Spain, cap. prov. Vizcaya (Biscay), on the Nervion. Lat. 43° 14' 3" N., on the Nervion. Lat. 43° 14′ 3″ N., long. 2° 56′ 5″ W. Pop. (1845) 11,900. Birmingham, a parl. and municipal

bor., one of the principal manufacturing towns of England, near its centre, co. Its manufactures comprise Warwick. almost every description of iron and steel goods, brass and iron founding, saddlery, ire-arms, cutlery; gold, silver, plated, bronze, or-molu, and japanned wares, with glass, tools, steam engines, and all kinds of machinery. Pop. (1841) 182,922.

Biscay (Bay of), (Fr. Golfe-de-Gas-

cogne), a vast bay or gulf formed by the Atlantic, and extending between Ouessant island, on the W. coast of France, and Cape Ortegal, on the N. coast of Spain.

Blenheim (Germ. Blendheim), a village of Bavaria, circ. Swabia, famous for the decisive victory gained near it by the English and Imperialists under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, over the French and Bavarians (called by the French the battle of Höchstedt). 2nd August, 1704.

Blois, an anc. city of France, cap. dep. Loire-et-Cher, on both sides of the

Loire.

Bogota (formerly Santa Fé de Bogota). a city of S. Amer., cap. of the repub. of New Grenada, on a plateau, 8,958 ft. above the sea, in lat. 4° 35′ N., long. 74° 10' W. Pop. estimated at 40,000.

Bois-le-Duc (Dutch S. Hertogenbosch, den Busch; in the English the "Duke's ') a fortd. city of the Netherlands. can. N. Brabant, at the junction of the Dommel and the Aa, 3 m. S. the Mass, and 28 m. S. S. E. Utrecht. Pop. (1840) exclusive of garrison of 2,948 men) 18,904.

Bojador (Cape), a bold headland of W. Africa, formed by the termination of a range of Mount Atlas, in lat. 26° 7′ N., long. 140 29' W. It was long the limit of European navigation, S .- ward until doubled by the Portuguese in 1433.

Bologna (anc. Felsina, afterwards Bo-nomia), a famous city of Italy, and the second in rank to the Pontif. states, cap. Lat. of observatory 44° 29 legation. Lat. of observatory 44° 29' 54" N., long. 11° 21' E. Pop. (1844) 75,000.

Bolton (le-Moors), a large manufacturing town, parl. and munic. bor. and par. of England, co. Lancaster, hund. Stafford, on an affluent of the Irwell. Area of par. 31,390 acres. Pop. 73,905. Pop. of borough, chiefly composed of the township and Little Bolton, 50,163.

Bonny, a town of France, dep. Loiret, on r. b. of the Loire, 12 m. S. E. Gien. Pop. 1,680. Also Bonny River, one of

the arms of the Niger

Boothia Pelix, an insular portion of British N. America, extending into the Arctic Ocean, between lat. 69° and 75° N., and long. 92° and 97° W., so named in honour of Sir Felix Booth. It was discovered by Capt. James Ross, who here determined the position of the Magnetic Pole.

Bordeaux, Burdigala, a city in the S. W. of France, cap. dep. Gironde, on left bk. of the Garonne, 60 m. from its mouth, in the Atlantic. Lat. 44° 50' mouth, in the Atlantic. 19" N., long. 34' 32" W. Pop. (1846) 120,203.

Borgoo, or Borgou, a kingdom of Africa, Soudan, W. of the Quorra, about lat. 100

N., long. 40 E.

7° 4′ N. and 4° 10′ S., and long. 108° 50′ and 119° 20′ E. The pop. has been very variously estimated.

Bornou (native Kanowra), a country

of Central Africa, Soudan, between lat. 10° and 15° N., and long. 12° and 18° E. Borodino, a village of Russia, gov. of Moscow, on the Kologa, and affluent of the Moskw, celebrated for the great vic-tory gained by the French over the Russians 7th September 1812, and called the battle of Moskw.

Bosnia, a prov. of European Turkey, comprising Bosnia Proper, between lat. 42° 30′ and 45° 15′ N.

42° 30′ and 45° 15′ N. Boston, a parl. and munic. bor., seaport town, and par. of England, co. Lincoln. pts. Kesteven, in a rich agricultural district, on the estuary of the Witham. 5 m. from the sea. Area of

Witham, 5 m. from the sea. Area of par. 5,220 acres. Pop. 12,942.

Bothsia (Gulf of) (Swedish Botten, Wiken), a gulf of Eur. forming the N. part of the Baltic Sea, between lat. 60° and 66° N., and long. 17° and 25° 35′ E.

Boulogne-sur-Mer (Gesoriacum), a fortified seaport town of France, cap. arrond. dep. Pas-de-Calais, on the English channel, at the mouth of the Lianne. Lat. (of the column) 50° 44′ 32″ N., long. 1° 36′ 15″ E. Pop. (1846) 29,741 (in 1831, 20,856), of whom a great number are

English residents.

Bourbon, an isld. of the Mascarene group, Indian O., forming a French colony, cap. St. Denis, in lat. 209 51 43". S., loug. 55° 30' 16" E. Length 38 m.; breadth 28 m. Pop. (1847) 169,000, of whom 68,000 were slaves: the island is of realth-in-trice. of volcanic origin.

Bousse, a large town of Central Africa. W. Soudan, cap. a principal of same name, on an island in the Niger. About lat. 10° 14′ N., long. 5° 20 E. Pop. variously estimated from 10,000 to 18,000.

Brabant, an old duchy of the Netherlands, which formed part of the circ. of Burgundy in the German empire. Also Brabant, North (Dutch Noord Braband), a prov. in the S. Netherlds cap. Boisle-Due, situated between lat. 51° 13' and 51° 50' N., and long. 4° 12' and 5° 58' E. Also Brabant, South (Dutch Zuid Braband), before the separation of the kgdm. of the Nethrlds. a prov. of Belgium, near its centre, cap. Brussels, situated betw. lat. 50° 32' and 51° 3' N., and long, 4° and 50 10' E.

Braganca, a town of Portugal, prov. Tras-os-Mentes, near the NE. frontier, cap. Comarca, on the Ferrenza. Pop. 5000.

Brass, a riv. and town of Africa, Gui-Borneo (native name Pulo-Kalaman-tin), an island of Malaysia, near the centre of the Bastern Archipelago, in the Pacific Ocean, situated between lat. E. The slave-trade here is mostly carried on by agents from Brazil and the Havanna.

Breda, a etrongly fortified town of the Netherlands, prov. Brabant, cap. cant., in a wide marsh, on the Merk. Pop. (1840) 12,692.

Bremen, one of the 4 free cities of Germany, on both sides of the Weser. Lat. (of observatory) 53° 4′ 36" N., long. 8° 48′ 54" E. Pop. with suburbs (1845) 53,156, nearly all protestants. Also Bremen, which was one of the principal towns of the Hanseatic league.

Breslau, a city of Prussia, cap. of the prov. of Silesia, and of circ. of same name, on the Oder, at the influx of the Ohlau. Lat. (of observatory) 51° 6′ 57″ N., long. 17° 2′ 33″ E. Pop. (1846) 112,200, of whom nearly 3-4ths are pro-

testants. Brest, Brestum, a comm. and city of France, cap. arrond., dep. Finisterre. Lat. (of observatory) 48° 23′ 32″ N., long. 4° 29′ 25″ W. Pop. (1846) 35,163. long. 4° 29' 25" W.

Pop. (1836) was 29,773.

Bretagne (Engl. Brittany), an old prov. in the NW. of France, forming an extensive peninsula between the Engl. Channel, and the Atlantic Ocean. This prov. derives its name from the Britons, who established themselves here after being driven from Britain by the Saxons in the 5th cent.

Brighton (formerly Brighthelmstone). a parl. bor., seaport town, pa. and watering place of Engl., co. Sussex. Lat. of lighthouse, chain pier head 50° 50′ N., long. 0′ 8° W. Area of pa. 1980 ac. Inhab. houses (1841) 8137. Pop. (in 1801) 7339 (in 1841, 46,730), do. of parl. bor. 48,567.

Bristol, a city, seaport, and co. of England, sit. chiefly in Glo'stersh. and partly in Somersetsh, on the Avon, at its confi, with the Frome. It long ranked as the second commerc. city of Engl., but its progress has not kept pace with that of other ports. It has, however, large iron and brass foundries, copper, tin, zinc, and glass works, chemical and colour works, sugar refineries and distilleries, with extensive estabs, for shipbuilding, Pop. (1841) 123,188.

Pop. (1841) 123,185.

Brugge (Flem. Brugge), a fortif. city
of Belgium, cap. prov. W. Flanders.
Lat. of (hall spire) 51° 12' 30" N., long.
3° 13' 44" E. Pop. (1845) 50,272.

Brussels (French Bruszelles), a city of
Central Europe, cap of the kingdom of
Belgium, and of the prov. of Brabant,
the Sense. Lat. of Colseptuations) 500 on the Senne. Lat. (of observatory) 50° 51' 11" N., long. 4° 21' 10" E. Pop. (1845) 117,462.

Buda, or Ofen, Budin, a free city of the city from the suburbs and vicinity. the Austrian emp. cap. of the kingdom Caledonia, a co. U. S. N. America, in of Hungary, and of the circ. on this side | NE. part of Vermont- Also, Caledonia

the Danube, opposite Pesth, with which city it is connected by a bridge of boats,

city it is connected by a bridge of boats, the largest in Europe, and by a chain-bridge, begun 1840. Lat. (of observ.) 470 29 '12" N., iong, 190 2 '19" E. Pop. (1840) exclus of military, 31,245. Bulgaria, Massla Inferior, a prov. of Europ. Turkey, extending between lat. 429 8' and 439 20' N., and long. 220 15' and 290 35' E. Estimated area 33,900 sq. m., and pop. 1,800,000.

Caen (Cadomum), a city of France, cap. dep. Calvados, on l. b. of the Orne.

Pop. (1836) 38,267. Cabool, or Caubul, a fortified city and the cap. of N. Afghanistan, on the Cabool river. Lat. 34° 30' N., long. 69° 6' E. Pop. about 60,000. It was the scene, in 1842, of the treacherous outbreak of the chiefs, the murder of Sir W. Macnaughten and Sir A. Burnes, and the massacre of 3,800 soldiers and 12,000 camp followers; it was retaken in the same year by the British treops under Sir R. Sale, the bazaars and public buildings burned. and finally relinquished.

Cagliari (Calaris), a fortified maritime city, and the cap, of the island Sardinia, on an extensive bay of its S coast. Lat. (tower of S. Pancracio) 399 13' 14" N., long. 90 7' 48" E. Pop. (1838) 27,989.

Cairo (El-Masr), "the capital" of the

Egyptians El-Kahireh, "the victorious," of the Arabs, the cap. city of Egypt, residence of the viceroy, and seat of government, near the r. b. of the Nile, Lat. (tower of the Janissaries) 30° 2′ 4″ N., long, 31° 15′ 36″ E. Pop., including the suburbs, estimated at 250,000.

Suburos, estimated at 230,000. Calabar (Old), or Cross River, a river of Africa, Upper Guinea, which falls into the Bight of Blafra, by a wide estuary, in long. 50 N., long. 80 20' E. Calabriu (Brettiesm), the S. part of the kingdom of Naplea. Area 7,200 sq. m.

Pop. (1844) 1.083,632.

Calais, a fortified sea-port town of France, cap. cant. Pas-de-Calais, on the Strait of Dover. Lat (of new lighthouse) 50° 57′ 45″ N., long. 19 51′ 18″. B. Height 190 ft. Pop. (1846) 10,673. Also, Calais, two townships of U.S. N. America.

Calcutta, a city of British India, presid. and prov. Bengal, and the cap, of the and prov. Bengal, and the cap, of the British dom. in the east, on the l. b. of the Hooghly river, an arm of the Ganges, and 100 m. from the Bay of Bengal. Lat. (of Fort William) 22° 33° 'N., long. 88° 17' E. Pop. (1837) estimated at 229,700; besides whom about 177,000 were supposed daily to frequent

(New), an island S. Pacific Ocean, be- | 4' 45" W. tween lat. 200 and 220 30' S., and long.

164° and 167° E.

Calicut, a seaport town of British India, presid. Madras, cap dist. Malabar, on the Indian Ocean. Lat. 11° 15′ N., long. 75° 52′ E. Pop. has been estimated at 25,000, but it is declining. It was the first place in India touched at by Vasco-de-Gama, who arrived here May 18th, 1498,

Callao, a fortified city of N. Peru, dep. Lima, of which it is the port, on the Pa-cific, in lat. 12° S., long. 77° 13′ 7″ W. Pop. perhaps 20,000. Also, Callao, an island of Further India, in the China Sea. Lat. 15° 48' N., long. 108° 30' E.

10 sq. m.

Cambay, a sea-port town of Hindostan Baroda dom. at the head of the Gulf of

Cambay. Pop. about 10,000.

Cambria, or Cambray (Camaracum),
a fortified town of France, dep. Nord, cap. arrond., on the Scheldt. Pop. (1846) 18,308. It has long been famous for its fine linen fabrics.

Cambridge (anc. Granta), a parl. and munic. bor., and mkt. town of England, cap. co. Cambridge, and seat of one of the great English Universities, on both sides the Cam. Pop. 24,453.

Campechy, the principal sea-port town of Versety, Carl America Co. 15. W.

Campecny, the principal sea-port own of Yucatan, Cent. America, on its W. coast. Lat. 19° 50' N., long. 90° 33' W. Pop., including suburbs, 15,000. It is the centre of a large trade in logwood or "Campechy-wood."

Canara, the most W. district of the Madras presid., British India, extending

along the Malabar coast, between lat. 12° and 15° N., and long, 74° and 75° E. Candahar, or Kandahar (Afgh. Ahmed-Shahi), a fortified city and cap. of Central Afghanistan, in a fertile plain. Lat. 32° 37′ N., long. 65° 20′ E. Pop. variously stated from 25,000 to 100,000,

mostly Afghans.

Candeish, Kandesa, one of the old
Mahratta provs. of Hindostan, between
lat 20° and 22° N., and long. 73° and 76° E.

Canterbury, a city, bor., and co. of itself, Engl.. and its metropolitan see, within co. Kent, on the Stour. The archbishopric founded A. D. 597 has had 92 archbishops, the most famous of whom have been, St. Augustine, the founder of the see, St. Dunstan, Stigand, Lanfranc, Anselm, Becket, Cardinal Pole, Cranmer, Laud, and Tillotson. The archbishop is "Primate of all England," and the first Peer of the realm next to the Royal Family. Pop. (1841) 15,435.

Caracas (or Caraccas), the cap. city of Venezuela, S. America, dep. and prov. goats, fed on the table-land of Tibet, at Caracas. Lat. 10° 80′ 13″ N., long. 67° from 16,000 to 17,000 ft. above the sea,

By the earthquake of 1812 12,000 persons perished.

Cape Verd, the most W. cape of Africa,

in the Atlantic ocean, between the rivers Senegal and Gambia. Lat. 14° 43′ N., long. 17° 34′ W.

Carlisle, Luguvallio, a city and riverport of England, cap. co. Cumberland, on a gentle eminence, near the confl. of Eden, Caldew, and Petrie rivers. Pop. 23,012. Also, Carlisle, a town of U. S. N. America, Pennsylvania, cap. co. Cumberland. Pop. 4,351.

Caristad, a len, or prov., of Sweden, mostly between lat. 55° and 61° N., and long. 12° and 14° 30′ E. Also, Caristad, an inland town of Sweden, cap. above len, on the island Tingvalla, near the N. shore of Lake Wener. Pop. 3,840.

Carisruhe, or Karisruhe ("Charles's

Rest"), a city of W. Germany, cap. Grand Duchy of Baden. Pop. (1846) 23,/48, of whom nearly two-thirds are

Protestants.

Carolina (La), a town of Spain, prov. Jaen. Pop. 1,739. Also, Carolina (North), one of the U.S. N. America, in the S. part of the Union, mostly between lat. 33° 50′ and 36° 30′ N., and long. 75° 45′ and 84° W. Area about 48,800 sq. m. Pop. 753,419, of whom 245,817 are slaves. Also, Carolina (South), one of the U.S. N. America, in the S. part of the Union, mostly between lat. 320 and 350 N., and long. 98° 24' and 83° 30' W., having E. the Atlantic, and on other sides N. Carolina and Georgia. Length 200 m, breadth 125 m. Area 25,000 sq. m. Pop.

554,398, of whom 277,038 are slaves.

Cartagena (Carthago Nova, or "New Carthage," it having been a principal colony of the Carthaginians), a celebrated city and seaport, and the chief naval arsenal of Spain, on a noble bay of the Mediterranean, prov. and 27 m. SSE. Mercia. Lat. 37° 36′ 5″ N., long. 0° 56′ 36″ W. Pop. (1845) 27,727. Also Cartagena, or Carlhagena, a strongly fortd. city and seaport of S. Amer., New Grenada, of which republic it is the chief naval arsenal, cap. prov., on a snady penins. in the Carlbbean Sea. Lat. of the dome 10° 25' 38" N., long. 77° 54' 25"W. Pop. 10,000, 9-10ths of whom are a mixed black race.

Cashmere, or Kashmir, a country of NW. Hindostan, Punjab. dom. consisting of the upper valley of the riv. Jailum (anc. Hydaspas), between lat. 33° 15' and 34° 30' N., and long. 73° 40' and 75° 30' E enclosed on all sides by ranges of the Himalaya. The staple wealth of Cashmere long consisted in shawls, woven from the inner hair or down of

and which article is imported by way of | Leh, in Little Tibet. Some years ago the annual value of the shawls was estimated at 300,000%, but the amount has

since greatly diminished.

Castile (Span. Castilla), a former kingdom of Spain. Also Castille (New), Span. Castilla-la-Nueva, an old prov. of Spain, forming the S. portion of the ancient kingdom of Castile; its cap. was Madrid. Also Castile (Old), Span. Castilla-la-Vieja, an old prov. of Spain.

Cayenne, a seaport town, and the cap. of French Guiana, on the W. point of the island of same name at the mouth of the Cayenne or Oyaque riv. in the Atlantic. Lat. 49 56' 5'' N., long. 52° 20'
W. Pop. (1837) 5220, of whom 2379 are slaves. The island of Cayenne, in the Atlantic, separated from the continent of S. America by a narrow channel, is 30 m. in circumference. Pop. (exclus. of the town of Cayenne) 2713, of whom 2644 are slaves.

Ceylon (Singala, anc. Taprobana), an island of British India, separated from the S. entrance of Hindostan by the Gulf of Manaar; between lat. 5° 55′ and 8° 48′ N., and long. 79° 55′ and 8° E. Champagne, a dist. of France, in the deps. Charente and Charente-Inf., form-

ing part of the arronds. Sautes, Jonzac, and Cognac, celebrated for its white wines, and the excellent brandy called

Cognac.
Chandernagore, a town and the principal of the French establishments in 1 india, Bengal, on the Hooghly river, lat. 220 51' 26' N., long. 88° 22' 12" E. Pop. (1841) 35,895, of whom 283 were

Europeans.

Cherbourg, a commercial and fortified seaport town of France, dep. Manche, cap, arrond, on the English Channel, at the N. extremity of the peninsula of Cotentin, and nearly opposite the W. extremity of the 1.0 f Wight, lat. of Fort Royal 49 40 3" N., long. 10 35 W.

Pop. (1846) 22,460. Chester (Deva Castra), an episcopal city, co.of itself, parl. and munic. bor.and river port of England, cap. co. on the Dec. Area of city co., comprising 11 pars., 3016 acres. Pop. 22,961.

Chimborazo, a celebrated mountain of S. America, and the culminating point of the Andes of Quito. Lat. 10 30' S., of the Andes of Quito. long. 79° W., elev. 21,420 feet, It is in the form of a cone, and perpetually snow lad. This was long considered the cul-minating point of the Andes, and the righest mountain in the world; it was conded by Humboldt 23rd June, 1802, to an elev. of 19,286 ft., and again by Boussingault and Hall, 16th December. 7831, to 19,695 ft.

Chittoor, a town of British India, presid. and 80 m, W. of Madras, dist. N.

Arcot.

Christiania, the cap. city of Norway, amp. Aggershuus, most picturesquely situated at the head of Christiania flord, in lat. 59° 54' 1" N., long. 10° 45' E. Pop. (1845) 26,141.

Cincinnati, a city of U. S. N. America, Ohlo, cap. co. Hamilton, on the Ohlo.

Pop. (1840) 46,388.

Circassia, or Tcherkessia, a country comprising the N. slope of the Caucasus, and also a part of its S. slope, the whole tract extending from the shores of the Black Sea to the vicinity of the Caspian, between lat. 42° and 45° N., and long. 37° and 47° E.

Coburg, a town of central Germany, cap. princip. of Coburg (a portion of the Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha), on the Its. on an affl. of the Regen. Lat. 50° 1st, on an affi. of the Regen. Lat. 50° 15′ 19′′ N., long. 10° 58′ 9′′ E Pop. (1846) 10,092. Also. Coburg-peninsula, N. Australia, is an irregular peninsula, in lat. 11° 22′ S., long. 132° 10′ E.

Coimbra (Conimbriga), a city of Portugal, cap. prov. Beira, on r. b. of the Mondego. Pop. 15,000.

Cologne (Germ. Köln, anc. Agrippina Colonia), a fortified city of W. Germany, formerly cap. electorate, now cap. Rhenish Prussia. Pop. (1846) 78,500. It has 24 factories of eau-de-Cologne.

Columbia, a federal district U.S. N.

America, lying on both sides of the Potomac river. Area 10,000 sq. m. 43,712, of whom 8361 are free coloured, and 4694 slaves. Also, Columbia, or Oregon river, NW. America, Brit. and U. States dominions, the main river of Oregon territory.

Congo, an extensive but little known country of W. Africa, in S. Guinea

Connaught, the most W. and smallest

of the 4 provs. of Ireland.

Conneaut, a tushp. of U.S. N. Amer. Ohio, on Lake Erie. Pop. 2642. It exports timber and provisions. Also two toshps. Pennsylvania.

Connecticut, one of the smaller states of the E.U.S.N. Amer., mostly between lat. 41° and 42° N., and long. 72° and 73° 50′ W. Pop. 300,015.

Constantinople, Stamboul, the cap. city of the Turkish, as formerly of the Byzantine, empire, separated by the Bosporus from Asia Minor. Lat. of St. Sophia's 41° 0' 16' N., long. 28° 59' 14"

Copenhagen (Danish Kjöbenhavn, "Merchants' port''), an important city of N. Europe, cap. of the kingdom of Denmark, in the Sound, is built on the islands Zealand and Amager, which are separated by a narrow arm of the sea,

observatory 55° 40′ 43″ N., long. 12° 34′ 44″ E. Pop. (1847) 129,300: (in 1830) It was taken by Nelson in the battle of the Baltic, April 2 1801, and bombarded by the English in 1807.

Cordova, or Cordoba (French Cordue, anc. Corduba), a city of Spain, cap. prov. of same name, and formerly cap. kgdm.

on same name, and formerly cap, again in a salubrious plain on the Quadal-quiver. Lat. 37° 52′ 15′ N., long. 4° 49′ 66′ Pop. (1845) 41,976.

Corfs., Corcyra, one of the Ionian islands, and the seat of their government. Extreme length 40 m., breadth 2 to 18 m. Area 227 sq. m. Pop. (1836) 74.913. Also Corfu, a fortified seaport city, cap. above island, near the centre of its E. coast. Lat. of citadel 39° 37' 1" N. long. 20° 6' 2" E. Population nearly 20,000

Corinth, Corinthus, a city of the king-dom of Greece, cap. dep. of same name, on the isthmus of Corinth, between the gulfs of Lepanto on the W., and Egina on the E. 48 m. W. Athens. Pop. 2000. Also Corinth (Gulf of), or Gulf of Le-panto, an arm of the Mediterranean, extending into the centre of independent Greece.

Cork, the most southerly and largest co. of Ireland, Munster, Inhab, houses 121,510. Pop. (including the city of Cork) 773,398. Also Cork, a city, parl. bor. and river port of Ireland, cap. co. Cork, and co. of itself, on the Lee. Pop. of co. of city or barony, 106,055.

Coromandel Coast. (India), ext. along the side of the peninsula, through nearly 60 of lat. from point Calymere to the mouth of the river Kistnah. It has no good harbour, and is heavily surf beaten.

Corsica (French Corse), an island in the Mediterranean, sit. between lat. 41° 20' and 43° N., and long. 8° 30' and 9° 30' E. Length, N. to S., 120m. Greatest breadth 45 m. Cap. Ajaccio. Pop. (1846) 230,271.

Coruña (Eng. Corunna, Fr. Corogne), a fortified city and seaport of Spain, cap. prov. of same name, in the bays of Betanzos and el. Ferrol (Atlantic). Lat. (Fort St. Antonio) 43° 22' 5" N., long. 8° 22' 7" W. Pop. (1845) 18,840. From this port the Spanish Armada set sail in 1588, and near this, on the heights of Elvina, the French were defeated. Jan. 16. 1809, by the troops under Sir. Moore, who was mortally wounded in the action.

Cracow (Germ. and Polish Krakau), a city and ancient cap. of Poland, more recently the cap. of a small republic, now comprised in the Austrian empire, on left bk. of the Vistula. Pop. about 43,000. It was incorporated with the

forming an excellent harbour. Lat. of | Austrian empire after an insurrection. in December, 1846.

Cremonu, a fortified city of Lombardy. cap. deleg., on the Po, here crossed by a bridge, 48 m. S. E. Milan. Pop. (1843) 23.308. Its violins and other musical instruments formerly had a high reputation.

Cronstadt, or Kronstadt, a fortified town of Russia, gov. of St. Petersburg, of which it forms the port, on a small island in the Gulf of Finland. Lat. (of cathedral) 59° 59° 46° N., long. 29° 46° 38" E. Pop. (in summer) 53,000, but in winter it is nearly deserted. Also, Cron-

stadt, Transylvania. [Kronstadt].
Cuba, the largest of the W. India Isle, situated between lat. 19° 5° and 23° 9' N., and long. 74° 8' and 84° 58' W. It is of an elongated narrow shape; greatest length 764 m., breadth varying from 25 to 130 m. Area, including its dependent isles, about 32,800 sq. m.

Cumaná, a marit. city of S. America, Venezuela, cap. dep. of prov. on the Gulf of Cariaco, at the mouth of the Manzanares. Lat. (of Fort Boca del Rio) 10° 27′ 6″ N., long. 64° 11′ W. Pop. 8,000.

Cuzco, a dep. of S. Peru, mostly be-tween lat. 13° and 15° S., and long. 70° and 73° W. Pop. (1827) 263,924.

Cyclades, are the principal islands of

Cyclades, are the principal islands of the Grecian archip., situated between lat. 36° and 38° N., and long. 24° and 26° 30′ E., belonging to the kingdom of Greece. Pop. (1836) 18,908. Cyprus, a famous isl. of Asiatic Tur-key, in the Mediterranean, in 35° N.. and between long. 32° and 34° 06′ E, Area estimated at 4,50° sq. m. Pop. (1841) 100,950, of whom 70,000 were Greeks, and 30,000 Turks.

Dacca, a city of British India, ranking Dacca, a city of British india, ranking as the second in the prov. of Bengal, and formerly its cap. Lat. 23° 45' N., long. 90° 17' E. Estimated pop. 200,000. Also, Dacca, and Dacca Jetalpoor; two contiguous districts of British India, president prov. of Bengal. United area 4455 sq. m. Pop. upwards of 1,000,000.

Dahomey, a country of W. Africa, Upper Guinea, extending along the coast from the river Volta to Fort Badagery, between lat. 6° and 8° N., and long. 0° 30' and 2° E.

Dalecarlia, or Dalarne, an old prov. of Sweden, now comprised in the læn Fahlun.

Damietta, a town and river port of Lower Egypt, on r. b. of the great E. branch of the Nile, at its Delta. Lat. 31° 25' N., long. 31° 49' E. Pop. estimated at 28,000.

Danzic (Dantzic Gdansk) an import-

ant fortified city and seaport of W. Prussia, cap. reg. on l. b. of the Vistula, Lat. (of parish church) 54° 21′ 4″ N., long, 18° 39′ 34″ E. Pop. (1846) includ-

ing 9 suburbs, 57,933

Dardanelles, or Hellespont (channel of), a narrow strait between Europe and A narrow are trained and a salatic Turkey, connecting the Sea of Marmora and the Ægean Sea, between lat. 40° and 40° 30′ N., and long. 26° 10′ and 26° 40′ E. The invading armies of Xerxes and of the Turks crossed it to enter Europe.

Darfur, a country of central Africa, E. Nigritia, consisting of an easis, near lat. 14° N., long. 27° E., and W. of Kor-

Dauphine, an extensive old frontier prov. in the SW. of France, now considered in the deps. Drome, H. Alpes, and Isere. After having been governed for several centuries by palatine counts, who were called Dauphins, it was ceded to Philip of Valois in 1349, and from that time up to the revolution of 1830, the eldest son of the king of France has the title of Dauphin.

Deccan (Dacshina, "the south"), a term formerly applied to the whole of Hindostan, S. of the Nerbuddaht, but latterly limited to the country between that river and the Kistnah, or from lat.

16º to 23º N.

Delki, an old Mohammedan prov. of Hindostan, between lat, 28° and 31° N., and long.75° and 80°E. Delhi, the former cap. of the Mogul empire, is situated in a plain, on the Jumna. N., long. 77° 5' E. Pop 200,000. Lat. 280 41' Pop. estimated at

Delta, from the Greek letter Δ , a name applied to the alluvial tracts enclosed between the bifurcating branches of a river and their common recipient. Deltas are called fluvial, lacustrine, Mediterranean, and oceanic, according to the recipient of the streams which form them Demcrara, or Demerary, co. of British Guiana, also a river of S. America.

Derby, a parl, and munic, borough and manufacturing town of England, cap. co., on the Derwent, at the head of its navigation, and on Markeaton Brook.

Pop. 32,741. Druz-Ponts (German Zweibrücken), "two bridges," a town of Rhenish Bavaria, formerly cap. of an independent

duchy. Pop. 6,920. Diarbekir, a pash. of Asiatic Turkey, mostly between lat, 37° and 39° N. and long. 37° and 39° E.

Dieppe, a comm. and seaport town of France, cap. arrond., dep. Seine Inf., at the mouth of the Arques, on the English Channel, lat. (of lighthouse) 49° 55′ 7″ N., long. 1° 5′ 2″ E. Pop. (1846) 16,504. Dijon, Divis, a comm. and town of France, cap. dep. Côte d'Or, at the confluence of the Ouche and Suzon, on the

Canal de Bourgonge.

Diu, a fortified maritime town of W. Hindostan, belonging to the Portuguese, on an island of the S. coast of the Gujerat peninsula, E. of Diu-head. Pop. 4000 (?) Diu-head Cape is in lat. 200 43' N., long. 710 3' 2" E

Domingo (San), a fortified seaport city of Hayti, W. Indies, on the SE. coast at the mouth of the Ozama, which forms its harbour. Lat. 18° 29' N. long. 69° 59' W. Fop. about 15,000. It was the first permanent settlement made by Europeans in America. Also, Domingo (San), an islet of the W. Indies, on the Great Bahama bank.

Dominica. or Domenica, a Brit. W. India island, Leeward group, lat. of Roseau, 15° 18' 4" N., long, 61° 24' 7" W. Pop. (1842) 18,291, of whom 700

were whites.

Dongola, a prov. of Nubia, in its central part, consisting of the valley of the Nile, between lat. 180 and 190 30' N., and comprising the grounds New and Old Dongola. The Mamelukes took possession of this country, on escaping from Egypt; it was taken from them by Ibrahim Pacha in 1820.

Dongola (New), or Maraka, a town of Nubia, cap. prov. Dongola, on the W. bank of the Nile. Lat. 19° 10′ 19″ N., long. 30° 22′ 15″ E.

Dordrecht, a town, Netherlands [Dort]. Dover, Dubris, a parl. and municipal bo. cinque port, and town of England, co. Kent, on the NW. side of Doyer Strait. Lat. (of castle) 51° 7' 8" N., long. 1° 19' 5" E. Area of bor. 320 ac. Pop. (1801) 7084; (1841) 17,975.

Dresden, cap. city of the kingdom of Saxony, on both sides of the Elbe. On the 26th and 27th Aug. 1813 the allies were defeated under its walls by the

troops of Napoleon

Dublin (Irish Bally-ath-Gliath, "the town on the ford of the hurdles," Cubhtown on the form of the nurdies," Cubhim, "black pool," the Eblana of Ptolemy), the cap. city of Ireland, and co. Dublin, on the Liffy, close to its entrance into Dublin Bay, Irish Sea. Lat. of observatory, 53° 25′ 2″ N., long. 69 20′ 5″ W. Also, Dublin, several thinh, of the U. S., N. America, the principal in Naw Hameshire. Pop. 10°5 New Hampshire. Pop. 1075.

Dundee, a parl. munic. royal burgh

seaport town and parish of Scotland, co. Forfar, on the N. bank of the Tay. Lat. of light-house 56° 8′ N., long. 2° 58′ W.

Dunkerque (Engl. Dunkirk), a fortified seaport town, and the most N. of France, dep. Nord, cap. arrond., on the

Pop. (1846) 24,562 [Strait of Dover. In 1888 it was burned by the English; in 1664 Charles II. of England sold it for 200,000t. to Louis XIV., who had it strongly fortified at a vast expense.

Durham, a maritime co. of England, in its N. part, having E. the N. Sea, N. the co. Northumberland, W. Cumberland and Westmorland, and S. Yorkshire. Area 1097 sq. m., or 702,080 acres, of which about 500,000 are arable, and 200,000 in pastures and waste land. Pop. 324,284. Also, Durham, an ancient city, parl, and munic, borough, and famous episcopal see of England, cap. above co. nearly in its centre. Area of bor. 10,260 acres. Pop. 14,151; of city 9,577. Also, Durham, a co. of New S. Wales, in the N. part of the colony. Also, Durham, several tnshps. U. S. N. America

Dusseldorf, a town of Rhenish Prussia. cap. reg. and of duchy of Berg, on r. b. of the Rhine. Pop. (1845), including suburbs of Neustadt and Regselberg,

23,517.

Eboc, a town of Guinea [Aboh] Elba (Latin Ilva, Greek Æthalia), the largest isl. of Tuscany in the Mediterr. Length, E. to W., 17 m.; breadth 21 to 101 m. The pop, which has been gradually m. The pop, which has been gradually increasing, was, in 1842, 18,486 civilians, of whom 7546 were proprietors of the soil. By the treaty of Paris, 1814, the island was erected into a sovereignty for Napoleon, and it was his residence from 254 Mar 1314 to 1824 Paris 1814 to 1824 Paris 1814 to 1824 Paris 1814 Paris 181 3rd May 1814 to 26th Feb. 1815. Also, Elba, a tashp. U.S. N. America, New York, 7 m. N. Batavia. Pop. 3161.

Elephanta, a small island of British India, presid. and in the harbour of

Bombay.

Elsinore, or Elsineur (Dan. Helsingör), a seaport town of Denmark, island Seeland, on its E. coast, at the narrowset part of the Sound, 24 m. N. Copenhagen. Lat 560 2' 11" N., long. 12° 36' 49" E. Pop. (1846) 8000. Elsinore is the assumed scene of Shakspeare's tragedy of Hamlet.

Emden, or Embden, a fortified seaport town of Hanover, landr. Aurich, prin-cip. E. Friesland, on the Dollart. Las 53° 22° 3″ N., long. 7° 12' 38″ E. Pop. Lat,

Enniskillen, a parl. and munic. bor., thriving market town, and parish of Ire-land, Ulster, cap. co. Fermanagh. Pop. of town 5685. Enniskillen was founded in 1641 by Sir W. Cole, to whose family it still mostly belongs, and now gives the title of Earl. The inhabitants warmly supported the Protestant cause in the war of 1689, successfully defended their town against King James's forces, and afterwards distinguished themselves at ligious houses.

A part of their the battle of the Boyne. soldiery were subsequently formed into the gallant regiment known as "the Ennishillen dragoons."

Epirus, a country of European Tur-key, in the S. of Albania, in which it is

now included.

Erfurt, or Erfurth, a fortified town of Prussian Saxony, cap. reg., on the Gera, and on the Thuringian railway, 14 m. E. Gotha. Pop. (1846) 24,640.

Erican, a fortified town of Russian

Armenia, cap. prov., on the Zengul, an Pop. (1834) affluent of the Araxes.

11,284.

Erzeroum (Pashalic of), one of the great sub-divisions of Asiatic Turkey, comprising the major part of Turkish Armenia, mostly between lat. 390 and 41° N., and long. 39° and 44° E. Also, Freeroum, Erg.-Rum, or Arzeroom, the principal city of Armenia, Asiatic Turkey, cap. above pash, in a plain on the Kara river, or W. branch of the Eaphrates. Pop. before the Russian invasion in 1830 was estimated at 100,000; but in 1844 it was only 40,000.

Escurial, a town of Spain [Escorial]

Estremadura, an old prov. in the SW of Spain. Also, Estremadura, an administr. prov. of Portugal, on the Atlantic Ocean; cap. Lisbon. Pop. (1846)

782.875.

Etna (Italian Mongibello), a celebrated volcanic mntn. of Sicily, on the E. coast of the island, forming a nearly isolated

Etruria, in ancient times one of the most important countries of Italy, now forms the duchy of Lucca, the greater forms the duchy of Lucca, the greater part of Tuscany, and a portion of the Pontif. states. The name was restored by Napoleon, who, by the treaty of Lunéville, in 1808, formed, of the grand duchy of Tuscany, the kingdom of Etruria, which was united to the French empire in 1808. Also, Etruria, a hamlet of England, co. Stafford, pa. Stoke-on-Trent, 14 m. NE. Newcastle-under-Lyne. It was the residence and seat of the manute of the late Mr. I. Wedge. the manufs. of the late Mr. J. Wedgewood, inventor of the beautiful imitation of Etruscan vases, and the great improver of English porcelain, who died here in 1795.

Evreux (anc. Mediolanum, afterwards Edurovices), a city of France, cap. dep. Eure, on the iton, 53 m. WNW. Paris. Pop. (1846) 8137.

Exeter, Isca Damnoniorum, a city, episcopal see, separate co., parl. and munic. bor., and river port of England, cap. co. Devon, on the Exe. During the middle ages it sustained several sieges, and was noted for the number of its re-

Fernando Po (Portuguese, Fernão do l pao, the name of its discoverer), an isld. of Africa, in the Gulf of Guinea, between lat. 3º 10' and 3º 44' N., long. 8º 22' and 80 54' E.

Ferrara (the Forum Allieni of Tacitus). a famous city of Italy, cap. the most N. legation of Pontiff. State, on the Po di

Volano. Pop. (1833) 25,586.

Ferro (Spanish, Hierro, French, Ile de Fer), the most SW. of the Canary islands. Lat. of NW. point 27° 45' 8' N., long. 18° 7' 5" W. of Greenwich.

Ferrol, a seaport town, and one of the principal naval arsenals of Spain, prov. of Coruña, on the N. arm of the Bay of Betansos. Lat. of Mole 43° 29' 30' N., long. 8° 13' W. Pop. (1845) 15,720.

Flanders (East and West), two con-tiguous provs. of Belgium, between lat. 50° 40' and 51° 23' N., and long. 2° 37' and 4° 23' E. Pop. (1846) 1,634,276.

Florence (Ital. Firenze, anc. Florentia), cap. of the grand duchy of Tuscany, and usual residence of the Grand Duke, is one of the finest cities in the world, and is visited annually by many thousand tourists. It is situated on the Arno, in tourists. It is situated on the state of the Appen-nines, in lat. 43° 46′ 41″ N., long. 11° 15′ 55″ E. Pop., with suburbs (1845), 106,899

Flushing (Dutch Vlissingen, French Flessingue), a fortified seaport town of the Netherlands, prov. Zeeland, on the S. side of the isl. Walcheren, at the mouth of the W. Scheldt. Lat. 51° 26' 42" N., long. 30 24' 57" E. Pop. (1840). exclusive of garrison, 7725. Most of its public buildings were destroyed during its bombardment by the English in 1809.

Formosa (Chinese, Tae-wan), an isld. off the SE. coast of China, partly independent, and partly comprised in the prov. Fo-kien, or Formosa.

Frankfort (German, Frankfurt-am-Main), a famous commercial city of Germany, cap. state of same name, and seat of the Germ. gov., on both sides of the Main, which divides it into 2 unequal parts. It is situated in lat. 50° 6′ 43′′ N., long. 8° 41′ 24″ E. Pop. (1946) 68,240, mostly Lutherans.

Frederickton (formerly St. Ann), the cap. town of New Brunswick, on the St. John's river.

Freiberg, a town of Saxony, cap. of its mining dist., circ. and 20 m. SW. Dresden, near the Mulde. Pop. (1846) 12,057.

Freiberg, a city of the grand duchy Baden, cap. circ. Upper Rhine, on the Dreisam. Pop., includ. suburbs (1846),

E. by the cant. Bern, S. by Vaud, and W. by Neuchâtel. Area 565 sq. m. Pop. (1837) 91,145, mostly Roman Ca-tholics. Also. Fribourg, or Freyburg, a town of Switzerl., on the Sarine, cap. cant. Pop. 8400.

Gaeta, Caieta, a small fortified seaport city of Naples, prov. S. di Lavoro, cap. dist., occupying a peninsula on the NW. side of the Gulf of Gaeta. Pop. (besides

military) 2800. Galilee, a prov. of ancient Judea, comprising the country W. of the Jordan, from Samaria nearly to Sidon, together with both shores of the lake of Galilee (or Tiberlas). It now forms the cent. part of the pash. Acre, Asiatic Turkey.

Gaza (Arabic Guzzeh), a city of Pales-tine, cap. pash. Lat. 31° 29' N., long. 34° 29' E. Pop. probably 15,000, or 16,000. Geneva (Fr. Geneve, Germ. Genf., Ital.

Ginevra), a walled town of Switzerland. cap, cant, same name. Lat. of observatory 46° 12' N., long. 6° 9' 5" E.

Genoa (Ital. Genova, Fr. Genes, anc. Genua), a famous fortified seaport city of N. Italy, Sard. sta., cap. div., at the head of the Gulf of Genoa, Mediterranean, 79 m. S.E. Turin. Lat, of lighthouse 44° 24′ 18′ N., long. 8° 54′ 24″ E.

Pop. (1838) 115,257.

Ghent (French Gand), a famous fortifled city of Belgium, cap. prov. E. Flanders. Lat. 51° 3′ 12″ N., long. 3° 43′ 51″ E. Pop. (1845) 112,810.

Gibraltar, a strongly fortified seaport town and colony of Great Britain, near the S. extremity of Spain, where it occupies a mountainous promontory, E. of its bay, and on the N. side of the Strait of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, 60 m. SE. Cadiz. (excluding garrison) about 15,000.

Gilolo, or Halmahera, a considerable island, Malay Archipelago, on the equa-tor. Long. 128° E.

Glasgow, a city and parl. borough of Scotland, lower ward of Lanarkshire, on the Clyde, in lat. 55° 51' N., long. 4° 17'

W. Pop. (in 1841) 274,533.

Glatz (Slav. Kladsko), a fortified town of Prussian Silesia. Pop. (1846) 7,800, or, including garrison, 10,058.

Gombroon, or Bunder Abbas (port of Abbas, anc. Hormuz or Harmozia), a sea-port town of Persia, prov. Kirman, but latterly forming a part of the Muscat dom., on the Persian Gulf, near its mouth. Lat 27° 18' N., long. 56° 30' E. Pop. 5,000 (?).

Gothenburg (Swed. Göteborg), a læn or prov. of Sweden. Pop. (1840) 164,974. 15,380. Elev. 920 feet.

Also, Gothenburg, or Gottenburg (Swed.

Fribourg, Friburg, or Friyburg, a Göteburg), a sea-port city of W. Sweden,

canton of Switzerland, bounded N. and [call but]. Pop. (1833) 28,788.

Göltingen, a town of Hanover, cap. princip. Göttingen, on the Leine, 60 m. S. Hanover. Lat. 51° 31′ 47″ N., long. 9° 56′ 45″ E. Pop. (1846) 10,644.

Gotha, a town of Central Germany, cap. princip. Saxe-Gotha. Pop. (1837) 13,874.

Grätz (Slav. Niemetzki-Gradetz), the cap. city of Styria. Lat. 47° 4′ 13" N., long. 15° 26′ E. Pop. (1846) including military 50,000.

Greenock, a pa. parl. and munic, bor., and sea-port town of Scotland, co. Renfrew, on the S. side of the Firth of Clyde. Lat. 55° 57′ 2′′ N., long. 40° 45′ 30′′ W. Pop. 38,860.

Grenoble, Gratianopolis, a comm. and fortified city of France, cap. dep. Isère. It was the first place which epenly received Napoleon after his return from Elba in 1815.

Groningen, a fortified town of the Netherlands, cap. prov. same name, on the Hanse. Pop. (1840) 31,000.

Guadalupe, a town of Spain, prov. E. the Sierra Guadalupe. Also, Guadalupe, a vill. and famous collegiate church, state of N. Mexico, greatly resorted to in pilgrimage. Also, Guadalupe, a considerable river of U. S. N. America. Also, Guadalupe, a viver of Spain, Aragon, joins the Ebro. Also, Guadalupe, an island of the Pacific Ocean, off the coast of Lower California. Lat. 25° N., long. 118° 22° W. Length 15 m. Also, Guadalupe (Sierra de), Carpetani Montes, a range of mountains of Spain, part of the mountains of Toledo.

Haarlem, or Harlem, a city of the Netherlands, prov. N. Holland, 11 m. W. Amsterdam, with which city, and with Leyden, it communicates by canals and by railway. Pop. (1840) 24.012

by railway. Pop. (1810) 24,012

Hague, The (Dutch S'Gravenhage,
"the count's meadow," French La
Haye), a town of the Netherlands, capprov. of S. Holland, and the usual residence of the Court and of the Statesgeneral. Lat. 529 4' 20" N., long. 40
18' 40" E. Pop. (1844) 66,000. Also,
Hague (Cape La), a headland of France,
often improperly called "Cape La
Hogue."

Haijfar, a parl. bor., a large manufacturing town and township of England, co. York, W. Ridding. Also, Halifar, a marit. city and cap. of Nova Scotia, on its SE. coast, in lat. 44° 39' N., long. 63° 37' W. Pop. (exclusive of army and navy) about 19,000. Also, Halifar, a co. of the U. S. N. America, in S. of Virginia.

Hamburg, the princip. commerc. city way, over a channel argument of Germany, cap. of the republic of same water, 23 m. W. Bangury with name, on r. b. of the Elbe, about 70 m. Is connected by railway: *7.86

from its mouth. Lat. 53° 32′ 51″ N. long. 9° 55′ 33″ E. Pop. (1948) 148,754. Hamburg is the greatest commercial city of the European continent, its trade embracing every article bought or sold in Germany.

House Towns, a name given to the towns of Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bretsen, the only remaining members of the Hanseatic League. This League was begun in 1241, by Hamburg and Lübeck, to protect their commerce against pirases. It soon embraced the principal maritime cities between the Scheldt and the Sulf of Livonia. Lübeck was regarded as cap of the League, and the States-General met there every 3 years. The society was very powerful in the 14th cent., but declined after the discovery of America and the route to India, at the end of the 18th century.

Harwich, a parl, and munic. bor., sesport, and mkt. town of England, our Basex, on a point of land, at the estuary of the Stour, 10 m. B. Manningtree. Lat. 519 56 67 M., long. 10 17 57 B. Area (comprising 2 pars.) 2,060 acres. Pop. 3890

Heidelberg, a city of W. Germany, grand duchy Baden, circ. Lower Rilner, Helmo (St.), an island in the S. Atlantic Ocean, about 300 m. SE. Arcension, and nearly 1200 m. from the const of Lr. Guinea. Lat. of observatory 120 St. S., long, 50 44 E. Arce 3250 m. Pop. (1837) 4977, of whom nearly a thiff were whites. It is of volcanie explanation and consists of rugged meuntains, these persed with numerous raviness. St. Section 1988 of the second was on the value of Napoleon Buonaparta, which is the second was on the value of the interior. He found there from 1816 to his decease, has the 1821. The island is now made over the British government by the R. Indian Company.

Hoberton, or Hobert-Tonon, the town of Tasmania, Van Diemen Sand dist. of same name, on the Department is mouth, on the S. coast. The Fort Mulgrave 42° 53° 5" 5" being 12' 15" E.

Hotyhead, Caer Gybi, an island of bor., seaport town, and this of British co. Anglese, off its W. wide, issue nected with that island; by a long as water, 23 m. W. Bangury with the island of the connected by railway.

some sheep pasture, and ending on the N. in a huge headland of serpentine rock, hollowed into many caves, which are the resort of flocks of sea-fowl. Holyhead owes its importance to its being the nearest British port to Dublin.

Horeb (Mount), a famous mntn. of Arabia Petræa, in the peninsula of Sinai, forming the N. end of the ridge, with the plain Wadyer-Rahah on the W., and supposed to be the Mount Sinai of

Scripture. [SiNAI.]

Huron (Lake), one of the 5 great lakes of N. Amer., lat. 48° to 46° 20' N., and long. 79° to 85° W.

Hydernbad, or Hydrabad, a town and fortress of Hindostan, cap. Scinde. Lat. 25° 22' N., long. 68° 22' E.

Ida (Mount), a famous mntn. of Asia Minor, Anatolia.

Illinois, one of the U.S. N. Amer., in the W. part of the union, between lat. 37° and 42° 30' N., and long. 87° 30' and 91° 25' W. Pop. (1840) 476,183.

Indus (Sanscrit Sindhu, the sea), one of the great rivs. of S. Asia, forming the

W. boundary of Hindostan.

Ingolstadt, a fortified town of Upper Bavaria, on l. b. of the Danube. Pop.

(1845) 9189.

Instriket, or Inspriket, Enipons, the cap, city of the Tyrol, at the mouth of the Sill. In 1848, the emperor of Austria took refuge here after his first flight from Vienna.

Inverness (formerly Innerness), a royal parl. and munic. bor., seaport town, and pa. of Scotland, cap. of co., and of the N. highlands; on both sides of the Ness.

Pop. of pa. 15,418,

Ionian Islands, a group in the Medi-terranean, off the W. coast of Greece and Epirus, forming a republic, dependent on Great Britain, between lat. 360 and 40° N., and long. 19° and 23° E. Pop. (1844) 219,797.

Irkutsk, a city of Siberia, cap. government of irkutsk, and residence of the governor of E. Siberia, on the Angara, at the influx of Irkut. Lat. 520 17' 2" N., long. 1040 16' 21" E. Pop., including garrison (1840), 18,000.

Irtish, a principal river of N. Asia, rises in the Altai mountains, near lat. 47° N., long. 89° E., and flows NW. through Dzoungaria (Chinese Turkestan), and W. Siberia.

Ismail, a town of Russia, Bessarabia, cap. dist., on l. b. of the Kilia, or N. arm of the Danube, at its Delta.

Ispahan, or Isfahan, Aspadana, a famous city, and formerly the cap. of Persia, now cap. the prov. Irak-Ajemi, Persia, now cap, the prov. Irak-Ajemi, Kiel, a seaport town of Denmark, and of a beglerbeylik. Lat. 320 45 N., duchy Holstein, on a fine bay of the

mostly a barren rock, interspersed with long. 51° 50′ E. Pop. has been variously some sheep pasture, and ending on the estimated from 60,000 to 250,000: it pro-

bably exceeds 100,000.

Ithaca, or Thiaki, one of the Ionian lands. Pop. (1836) with dependencies, Also, Ithaca, a tushp. U. S. N. America, New York, at the S. extremity of Cayuga Lake. Pop. 5650.

Iviça, an island of the Mediterranean [Iviza.]

Jaffa, or Yafa, Joppa, a small maritime town of Palestine, pash. Lat. 320 3' N., long. 340 45' E

Jena, a town of central Germany, duchy of Saxe-Weimar, cap. dist., on the Saale. Pop. (1846) 6267 Here, on the 14th Oct. 1806, the grand French army under Napoleon totally defeated the Prussians under their King and the Duke of Brunswick. The latter fell in

the action.

Jersey, Cæsarea, the largest and most SE. of the islands belonging to Great Britain, in S. of the English Channel. Lat. of St. Heller's 49° 11' 3" N., long. 2° 7' W. Pop. 47,544.

Jersey City, a town of the U.S. N. America, New Jersey, on the Hudson river, opposite New York. Pop. 3072. Also, Jersey (New), U.S. N. America.

[New Jersey.]
Jordan (Arab. Sheriah-el-Kebir, "the great watering-place"), a famous river of Asiatic Turkey, forming the E. bound-ary of Palestine. Its valley is about 5 m. wide, hemmed in by precipices; the soil sandy and barren, though the banks of the river are covered by a Principal affis. the dense vegetation. Zurka, and Sheriah-el-Mandur.

Jütland (Danish Jylland, anc. Chersonesus-Cimbrica), a low flat peninsula of Denmark, comprised between the N. Sea, the Skager-Rack, the Kattegat, the Little Belt, and the Baltic, and extending between lat. 52° 45' and 57° 43' N., and long. 8° 5' and 10° 57' E. Also, Juliand (North), the largest and most important prov. of Denmark, forming the N. portion of peninsula of same name, separated from Schleswig by the Kolding river on the E., and the Konge on the W. Lat. 55° 23' N. Area 9697 sq. m. Pop. (1847) 588,500.

Khojend, a populous town of Central Asia, independent Turkestan.

Khotan, Elechee, or Ilitsi, a town of Chinese Turkestan, on the route between Yarkand and Lapa. Lat. 37º N., long. 80° 30' E.

Kiama, a town of Central Africa, in district of same name, State Borghoo.

Baltic. Pop. (1847) 14,000, or, including Bechuana country, lat. 27° 10′ S., long. its suburb Brunswick, 15,000.

Killarney, a market town and par., Munster, co. Kerry. Pop. 10,476. Pop.

of town 7127.

Kingston, the principal commercial city and seaport of Jamaica, co. Surrey, on its S. coast, on the N. side of a fine harbour. Pop. estimated at 35,000. Kingston, a town of Upper Canada,

Midland dist., on the site of Fort Frontenac, at the NE. extremity of Lake Ontario, and at the mouth of the Cataraqui. Pop. (1846) 6123.

Kinsale, a parl. and munic. bor. sea-port and town of Ireland, Munster, co. Cork. Pop. of parl. borough, including

the suburb of Scilly, 6918.

Kola, a town of Russian Lapland, gov. of Archangel, near the mouth of the Kola river, in the Arctic Ocean. Pop.

Konisberg, Mons-Regius, a fortified city of Prussia, and second cap. of the kingdom, on the Pregel. Lat. of observatory 54° 42' 8" N., long. 20° 30' 2" E. Pop. (1846) 72,400.

Lahore, the cap. city of the Punjab, British India, on an affluent of the Ravee, in lat. 31° 36' N., long. 74° 18' E. Pop. estimated at from 100,000 to 120,000. Under the Mogul emperors, the city was of much greater extent. In 1748, it fell into the hands of Ahmed Shah; in 1798 Runjeet Singh was invested governor After the final defeat of the and rajah. Sikhs, in 1849, Lahore was taken possession of by the British.

Lanark, an ancient royal and parl. bor., town and par. of Scotland, cap. co. of par. 7679; do. of parl. borough 4467.

Landau, a strongly fortified town of Rhenish Bavaria, on the Queich. Pop. (1845) 6074, among whom are many Jews.

Languedoc, an old prov. in the S. of France, the cap. of which was Toulouse. The canal of Languedoc, or du Midi, commences in the Garonne, near Toulouse, and terminates in the Lake of Thau, in the Mediterranean. Length Length 153 miles.

Larissa, or Yenitcher, a town of European Turkey. Lat. 89° 37' N., long. 21° 28' E. Estimated pop. 20,000, of

whom 3-4ths are Turks.

Lassa, or H'Lassa, "land of the Divine Intelligence," the cap. city of Tibet, and residence of the Dalai, or Grand Lama, on the Mourau river, an affluent of the Sanpo. Lat. 29° 30' N., long. 91° 40' E. Pop. conjectured to be about 24,000, besides a garrison of 3000 Chinese

Lattakoo, a populous town of S. Africa, from slavers.

Lausanne, a city of Switzerland, cap. cant. Vaud, on the N. shore of the Lake

of Geneva. Pop. 12,000.

Laybach, or Laibach (Slav. Lublana, anc. Amona), the cap, city of Illyria, Austrian Empire, and of a gov. compris-ing Carinthia and Carniola, on the Laybach. Lat. 46° 1' 48" N., long. 14° 30' Pop. (1845) 13.000.

Lebanon (Hebrew " The White Mountain," Libanus), a famous mountain

chain of Syria.

Leeds, a parl. and munic. bor. and the principal manufacturing town of England, co. York, W. riding, situated on the N. side of the Aire. Pop. 152,054; of whom 88,741 inhabited the town and township. Also, Leeds, a pa. of Engl., co. Kent. Pop. 675. Also, Leeds, a town U. S. N. America, Maine. Pop. 1736. Also, a pa. Upper Canada.

Leghorn (Ital. Livorno), a city and

the principal seaport of Tuscany, prov. Pisa, on the Mediterranean. Lat. 439 827 7" N., long. 100 17' 7" E. Pop. (1845) 80,195, of whom 4300 were Jewa.

Leipsic (German Leipzig), the second cap. of Saxony, and the largest commer-cial town of E. Germany, cap. circ. on the White Elster. Pop. (1846) 54,519, nearly all Protestants. Leipsic is the grand emporium of the book trade of Germany.

Lemberg (Pol. Lwaw; Lat. Leopolis), Lemoerg (POLLWAW; Lar. Leopous,), a city of Austrian Poland, cap. of the kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, on the Peltao. Pop. (1845) 75,000, of whom 20,000 are Jews. Also, Lemberg, a com. and vil. of France, dep. Moselle, with 1900 inhabs. Also, a vil. of Rhenish Bavaria. Pop. 1240.

Leominster (pron. Lemster), a parl and munic. bor., market town, and pa. of Engl., co. Hereford, on the Lugg. Pop. 4916. Also, *Leominster*, a tushp. U. S. N. America, Massachusetts. Population 2069.

Lepanto, Naupactus, a seaport town of Greece, on the N. coast of the G. of Lepanto. Pop. 2000.

Leyden (Dutch Leiden), Lugdunum Batavorum, a city of the Netherlands. Lat. of observatory, 52° 9′ 5″ N., long. 4° 29′ 5″ E. Pop. (1844) 38,500.

Liberis, an independent Negro re-public of W. Africa, established 1823, extends along the coast of Guinea, between Sierra Leone and Cape Menairado for 320 m., with an average breadth of 80 m. Pop. estimated at 80,000 coloured persons, of whom 10,000 are free blacks from the U. States, and the remainder aborigines, or captives released

Liege (Dutch Luyk, Germ. Luttch), a city of Belgium, cap. prov., on the Maese. Pop. (1845) 77,587. Liege has been called the "Birmingham of the Low Countries."

Lima, the cap. city of Peru. Lat. 12° 2' 55" S., long. 77° 5' 30" W. Pop.

(1838) 45,000.

Limerick (pron. Limrick), an inland co of Ireland, prov. Munster. Pop. 281,638. Also, Limerick, the principal city of W. Ireland, and a parl. and munic. bor., river-port, and co. of itself, and cap. co. Limerick, on an island in the Shannon, and on both banks of that river, being partly in co. Clare. Lat. 529 do? N., long. 80 35° W. Pop. 65,206, of whom 48,391 were in the city.

Lincoln, Lindum, a city, parl. and munic. bor., and co. of itself, England, cap. co. Lincolnshire, on the Whitham. Pop. 16,172; ditto of city 13,896.

Lisbon (Portug, Lisboa, anc. Obispo), a city of W. Europe, cap. of the kingdom of Fortugal, and of the prov. Estremadura, on r. b. of the Tagus, near its mouth in the Atlantic ocean. Lat. of observatory 38° 42′ 4″ N., long. 9° 8′ 2″ W. Pop. (1845) 280,000.

Liverpool, a parl. and munic. bor., and, next to London, the principal seaport of England, co. Lancaster, hundred W. Derby, on the E. bank of the Mersey setuary, about 4 m. from the Irish Sea. Lat. of St. Paul's Church, 53° 24′ 6″ N., long. 2° 59′ 5″ W. Pop. (1846) 356,655.

Lockaber, a wild and mountainous dist, of Scotland, co. Inverness. The last wolf, known to have existed wild in Great Britain, was killed here by Cameron of Lochiel in 1680.

Lodi, a city of Lombardy, cap. deleg. Lodi and Crema, on the Adda, Pop., with 4 suburbs (1846), 15,709. On the 10th of May, 1796, Napoleon gained a decisive victory over the Austrians bere.

Loo-Choo Islands, a group in the N. Pacific Ocean, between Japan and Formosa. The whole between lat. 260 and 27° N., and in long. 128° E.

Loreto, or Loretto, a city of central Italy, pontif. sta. deleg. Pop. 8000. Also, Loreto, a town of Naples, prov.

Abruzzo Ult. dist. Pop. 4560.

Lorient, a fortified seaport town and comm. of France, dep. Morbihan, cap. arrond., at the confluence of the Scorff and Blavet, at the head of the Bay of Port Louis. Pop. (1846) 19,106.

Louis (Port and Port St.). Louis, &c.] Also, a lake of Lower Canada. Also, a co. of the U.S. N. Amer., Missouri. Also, an island, town, and town of government of same name, and port, W. Africa. Also, two towns of a Dutch settlement of the Asiatic Archi-layti. Also, a comm. and town of pelago, on the SW. peninsula of the

France, dep. H. Rhin., arr. Altkirch. Pop. 1605. Also, a comm. and vill. of France, dep. H. Rhin, arrond.

Louvain (Dutch, Leuwes, Germ. Löwen), a city of Belgium, prov. S. Brabant, cap. arrond., on the Dyle. Pop. (1845) 25,698.

Lubeck, a famous commercial city of N. Germany, nominally the chief of the Hanse towns, and the cap. of a small republic, on the Trave. Lat. 53° 52' 1" N., long. 100 41' 5" E. Pop. (1845) 25,339.

Lucerne (Germ. Luzerne), a cant. of Switzerland, near its centre. Pop. (1837)

Lucerne, a city of Switzerland, cap. cant. Lucerne, and one of the three seats of the Swiss Diet, on the Reuss. Pop. 8200.

Lucia (St.), a British W. India island, Windward group. Lat. of S. extremity 13° 41' N., long. 61° W. Pop. (1846) 21.457.

Lucknow (Hind, Laksmanavate), a city of Hindostan, cap. Oude dom., on the Goomty, a tributary of the Ganges. Pop. estimated at 200,000.

Luncburg, a town of NW. Germany, Hanover, cap. landr. and principality, on l. b. of the Ilmenaw. Pop. (1845) 11,779.

Luneville, a com. and town of France, dep. Meurthe, cap. arrond., on the Vesouse, near its junction with the Meurthe. Pop. (1846) 12,164.

Luxembourg (Grand Duchy of), a state of Europe, bounded E. and NE. by Rhenish Prussia, S. by France, and W.

by Namur (Belgium).

Luxemburg (Germ. Lutzelburg), a strongly fortified town of the Netherlands, cap. duchy Luxemburg, on the Alzette. Pop. (1840), including garrison, 12,000.

son, 12,000.

Lyons, Lugdunum, a city of France, cap. dep. Rhône, on the Rhône and cap. dep. Lat. Saône, which unite below the city. Lat. 45° 45′ 44″ N., long.4° 49′ 34″ E. Pop. (1846) 159,783. It is the great seat of the silk trade. In 1793 it was taken by the army of the Convention after a two months' siege, and was the scene of the most horrid cruelties.

Macao, a seaport town and settlement of the Portuguese in China, prov. Quang-tong, on a peninsula of the island Macao, at the SW. entrance of the Canton river. Lat. of flag-staff, 220 11' 4" N., long. 1130 32' E. Pop. between 20,000 and 30,000, mostly Chinese.

Macassar, or Mankasser, the chief town of government of same name, and

island Celebes, lat. 50 9' S., long, 1190

Madrid, a city of S. Europe, cap. of the kingdom of Spain, and of the prov. Madrid, near the centre of the peninsula, on l. b. of the Manzanares, and in the middle of the table land of Castille, 1995 Lat. 40° 24' 57" W. Pop. (1845) feet above the sea. La N., long. So 41' 51" W. N., lon 216,740.

Maestricht, Trajectum ad Mosam, a strongly fortified town of the Netherlands, cap. duchy of Limburg, on l. h. of

the Maese. Pop. (1844) 31,000.

Magdeburg, a fortified town of Prussia, cap, prov. Saxony, and of a reg., on l. b. of the Elbe. Pop. (1846), including suburbs and garrison, 54,500

Malabar, a marit. dist. of British India, presid. Madras, on the W. coast, mostly between lat. 19° and 12° N. Area 6262 Area 6262

sq. m. Pop. (1837) 1,140,916.

Malaga (Mulaca), a seaport city of Spain, cap. prov., on a bay of the Mediterranean. Lat. of mole, 360 43' 5" N., long. 4º 26' E. Pop. (1845) 65,865.

Malo (St.), a fortified seaport town and comm. of France, dep. Ille-et-Vi-

laine. Pop. (1846) 8469.

Mangalore, a seaport town of British India, presid. Bombay, dist. Canara, on the Malabar coast. Pop. 30,000.

Mannheim, or Manheim, a town, W. Germany, grand duchy Baden, cap. circ. Lower Rhine, on the Rhine. Also, Manheim, several townships, U.S. N. of Amer.

Manilla, or Manila, a fortified city of the Philippines, and the cap. of the Spanish possessions in the East. Lat. of Spanish possessions in the East. Lat. of cathedral 14° 35' N., long. 121° 2' 4" E. Pop. of city about 15,000.

Mantua (Ital. Mantova), a fortified

city of Austrian Italy, cap. deleg., on an island in the Mincio. Lat. 450 9' 84" N., island in the Mincio. Lat. 45° 9' 34" N., long. 10° 48' 1" E. Pop. (1845) 26,000,

comprising 2500 Jews.

Maracaubo, a fortified city of S. Amer., Maracayo, a fortune city of s. Aliel., Venezuela, cap. dep. and prov. Zulia. Lat. 19° 41′ N., long. 71° 40′ W. Pop. 14,000. Also, Maracaybo Gulf, is an inlet of the Caribbean Sea.

Marathon, a hamlet, small river, and plain of Greece. The plain is renowned for the victory of Militades over the army of Xerxes, B. c. 490.

Marengo, a vil. of Piedmont, prov. of Alessandria, memorable for the battle of 14th June, 1800, between Napoleon and the Austrians, in which the

poteon and the Austrians, in which the latter were completely defeated.

Mariy-le-Roi, a comm. and vil. of France, dep. Seine-t-Oise, cap. cant., local part of the hydraulic works which he plansed to convey water to Versallies.

Marquesas, or Mendana Islands, a group in the Pacific Ocean, between ist. 8° and 11° S., and long. 140° W. Estimated pop. of the group (1840) 15,000 to

Masseilles, Massilia, a comm. and city of the S. of France. Lat. of observatory 43° 17' 8" N., long. 5° 22' 2" E. Pop. (1846) 133,216.

Martaban, a frontier town of the Bur-

martaoam, a fronter town of the Sufrenses dom, cap. prov., on the Sufrenses dom, cap. prov., on the Sufrenses dom, cap. prov., on the Sufrenses for the Sufr and 98° E

Martinique (La), one of the French W.India islands in the Windward group, between lat. 14º 24' and 14º 53' N., and long. 60° 50' and 61° 18' W. Pop. (1841)

117,906

Massough, or Massowah, the principal seaport town of Abyssinia, on a small sterile island in the Red Sea. Lat. 15° 36' N., long. 39° 21' E. Pop. of island estimated at 4000.

Mauritius, or Isle of France, an island of the Indian Ocean, forming a colony of Great Britain. Lat. of Cooper's island 200 9 7" S., long. 57° 31' 7" E. Pop. (1846) 161,920, of whom 10,000 are whites, and the remainder negroes and hill coolies.

Mecca, a city of Arabia, cap. of the Hedjaz, and of the dist. Belud-ul-Haram. Lat. 21° 28' N., long. 40° 15' E. It was taken by the Wahabees in 1804 and in 1807, and by Ibrahim Pasha in 1818.

Mechlin (Fr. Malines), a city of Belgium, prov. of, cap. arrond., divided into two portions by the Dyle. Pop. (1845) 27,234. It is the central station for the railways which traverse Belgium in all directions.

Meiningen, a fortified town of central Germany, cap. duchy Saxe-Meiningen, on r. b. of the Werra. Pop. (1845) 6205.

Memel, a fortified seaport town of B. memc., a fortuned scaport rown of E. Prussia, being the most N. in the kingdom. Lat. of lighthouse 55° 43′ 7″ N., long. 21° 6′ 2″ E. Pop. (1846) 9400.

Mestz., a city of Germany. [Mayence.]
2 A township of U. S. N. Amer. New York, on the Eric canal. Pop. 4215.

Messina, Zancle, and Messana, a city and seaport of Sicily, cap. intend., on the strait of Messina. Lat. of lighthouse 38° 11' 10" N., long. 150 34' 7" E. Pop. (in

1831) 83,772. Mexico, Tenochtitlan, the cap. city of

in a wide fertile plain, between the fortified marit city, and the cap. of the Olona and Saveso rivs. Lat. of observatory 45° 28′ 1″ N., long. 9° 11′ 20″ E. an island at the entrance of Merial Bay, Pop. (1846) 161,966, including a garrison an inlet of the Mozambique channel. of 8000 men, and 17,000 strangers. Also, Milan, numerous townships of N. Amer.

Milford, a parl, bor, and seaport town Wales, co. Pembroke, on the N. side of Milford Haven, pa. Stainton. Pop. 2377. Also, Müford, several townships,&c. U. S. N. Amer. Also, Milford (New), a

township of Connecticut.

Milford-Haven, a harb. of Engl., on a basin or deep inlet of the Atlantic, coast of S. Wales, co. Pembroke, forming one of the best ports in the British dominions.

Mocks, or Mokks, a fortified seaport town of Arabia, Yemen, on the Red Sea. Lat. 13° 20' N., long. 43° 12' 2" E. Pop. 7000; celebrated for its coffee. Also, Mocha is a country SW. of Abyssinia.

Modena, Mutina, a fortified city of N.

Italy, can duchy Doc (1942) of 10.

Italy, cap. duchy. Pop. (1843) 27,430. Also, Modena (Duchy of), a state of

ltaly.

Mogadore, Mogodor, or Suira, a fortified city, and the princip. seaport of Morocco, on the Atlantic. Pop. esti-mated at 17,000.

Mons (Flemish Berghen), a fortified town of Belgium, prov. Hainault, on the Trouille. Pop. (1846) 23,165.

Montreal (formerly the Indian vit. Huchelega), the second city and river port, and the chief seat of commerce of Lower Canada, on the SSE. side of the isld. of same name in the river St. Lawrence. Lat. 45° 30′ N., long. 73° 35′ W. Pop. (1825) 22,357; ditto (1844) 44,093.

Monte Video, a fortified scaport city and

Monte Video, a fortified seaport city and cap. of the repub. Uruguay (or Banda Oriental), S. Amer., on a peninsula in the estuary of the Plata. Lat. 34° 53° S., long. 56° 15° W. Pop. 12,000.

Montpellier, a city of France, cap. dep. Montpellier, a text of France, cap. dep. 137,774. Also, Montpellier, a tnshp. U.S. N. Amer., with a vil. cap. state Vernont. in a plain on lake Wingoski. Pop. mont, in a plain on lake Winooski. Pop.

of vil. 1700; of tashp. 3725.

Moscow, a gov. of cent. Russia, mostly between lat. 54° 50′ and 56° 40′ N., and long. 34° 50′ and 38° 50′ E. Area 12,380 sq. m. Pop. (1846) 1,374,700. Also. Moscow (Russ. Moskwa), a chief city of European Russia.

Moscile, a frontier dep. of France, in the NE., formed of parts of the old provs. Lorraine and French Luxembourg.

Pop. (1846) 448,087.

Mozambique, the principal of the Portuguese colonial possessions, on the mainland of Africa, between lat. 100 and 26° S., or from Cape Delgado to Delagoa
Bay, and stretching to an uncertain Nazareth (Arab. en-Nazirah), a small
distance inland. Also, Mozambique, a town of Palestine, pash. Estimated pop.

Also, Mozambique Channel, a strait of the Indian Ocean, between lat, 120 and 25° S., and long. 35° and 49° E., separating Madagascar from the mainland of E. Africa.

Munich (Germ. München), the capcity of Bavaria, S. Germany, and of the prov. Upper Bavaria, on the Isar. Lat.

107 Frauenkirche) 48° 8' 20' N., long. 11° 34' 42" B. Pop. (1846) 94,830. Muscat, Imamat of, an extensive and powerful state of Arabia, comprising the E. portion of that peninsula. Muscat, or Mascua (probably the Mosca of Arrian), a fortified maritime city of E. Arabia, cap. above dom., on a peninsula in the Arabian Sea, lat. 23° 37′ N., long. 58° 35′ E. Pop. 40,000.

Mysore (Hind. Maheshasura), a state of S. India, subsid. to the British, consisting of a table land between lat. 110 35' and 15° N., and long. 74° 45' and 78° 45' E.

Namur, a strongly fortified city of

Namur, a strongy fortned city of the Sambre and Meuse. Pop. (1845) 24,363. Nankin, or Nanking ("court of the south)"), a city, and the ancient cap. of China. cap. prov. Kiangsu, near the Yang-tze-kiang. Lat. 32° 2° N. long. 118° 49' E. Pop. estimated at 400,000.

Nantes, Condivienum, afterwards Namnetes, a comm. and city of France, cap. dep. Loire-inf., 208 m. SW. Paris. Pop. (1846) 82,993.

Napoli, two marit. towns of Greece, Morea.—1. N. di Romania, (Nauplia).— 2. N. di Malvasia, [Monemvasia]. - 3.

Italy. [Naples.]

Navarin, or Navarino, a fortified sea-port town of Greece, Morea, gov. Pylos, on a bay of the Mediterranean. Famous in antiquity for a total defeat of the Spartan by the Athenian navy, and in modern times for the victory of the English, French, and Russian fleets over those of the Turks and Egyptians, Oct. 20, 1827.

Navarra (Fr. Navarre), a prov. of pain. A small part of the country, called Basse-Navarre, remained to Catherine of Navarre, and was united to France in 1589. From that time till the revolution of 1830, the kings of France

took the title of king of Navarre.

Nazos, or Nazia, Nazos, an island of the Grecian archipelago, the largest and most fertile of the Cyclades, in lat. 37° N., long. 25° 31′ E. Pop. (1840) 19,912.

8000, mostly Christians, but comprising 500 Turks. Also Nazareth, a comm. and

mkt. town of Belgium.

Nepaul, Nepala, an independent country of Hindostan, comprising the S. slope of the Himalaya mtn. chain, between lat. 26° 30′ and 30° 50′ N., and long. 80° and 88° E. Pop. estimated at 2,000,000.

and oo' E. Pop. estimated at 2,00,000.

Newcastle-upon Tyne, Pons Ælii, afterwards Monkchester, a parl. and munic.
bor. town, and river port of Engl. cap.
co. Northumberland, and a co. of itself,
on the N. bank of the Tyne. Pop. of parl. bor. 69,430. Also, a vill., U. S. N. Amer., Delaware. Also, two towns and some pars. of Irl.—1. Munster, co. of Limerick. Pop. 2917; 2. a seaport town, Ulster, co. Down. Pop. 1157.

Newf undland, an island and one of

the British colonies, N. Amer., off the E. coast of Labrador, mostly between lat. 46° 40′ and 51° 37′ N., and long. 52° 25' and 590 15' W. Pop. (1845) upwards

of 96,000.

New York, one of the U. States of N. Amer., and though not the largest, yet in every other respect the leading state of the Union; between lat. 40° 31' and 45° N. and long. 72° and 79° 55' W. Pop. (1845) 2,604,495. Also, New York, the largest and most populous city, prin-cipal seaport, and commercial cap. of the U. S., on an island near the S. extremity of New York State. Lat. of city-hall 40° 42′ 7″ N., long. 74° 0′ 7″ W. Pop. (1845) 371,102.

Niagara, a river of N. Amer., between Upper Canada and the U.S. (New York state), unites lakes Erie and Ontario. From lake Erie it forms the famous Falls of Niagara, where the river is precipitated over a vast ledge of silurian limestone, forming two cataracts, separated by Goat Island, 500 ft. in width. The Horse-shoe fall, on the Canadian side, is 1800 ft. across, and 158 ft. in perpendicular depth, and the American Falls 600 ft. in breadth, 163 ft. in depth, and above which a strong rude bridge crosses to Goat Island.

Nice (pron. Neece), Ital. Nizza, anc. Nicza), a seaport and episcopal city of N. Italy, cap. div. 98 m. SW. Turin. Population (including garrison) (1839),

33,811. Nicobar Islands, called by the Malays Pulo Sambil-long (9 islands), a group of islds. in the Indian Ocean, S. of the Bay of Bengal, between lat. 6° 40′ and 9° 30′

N., and long. 920 50' and 940 E.

Norwich, a city, parl. bor., and riverport, of England, cap co. Norfolk, and a co. of itself, on the Yare. Pop. 60,982 Also, Norwich, a city and tashp., U.S., N. Amer., Connecticut, on the Thames. Pop. of city 4200; of township 7239.

Nottingham, a parl. and munic. bord and manufacturing town of England. cap. co. Nottingham, and a co. of itself, on the Leen. Pop. 51,441.

Nova Scotia, a peninsula of N. Amer., forming a British colonial territory, between lat. 43° 35′ and 45° 40′ N., and long. 60° 35′ and 66° 10′ W. Pop. (1838) 155,000.

Nova Zembla (properly Novaia Zemlis, new land"), an insular region, in the Arctic Ocean, considered to be comprised in Europe, and dependent on the Russian gov. Archangel, between lat. 70° 30' and 76° 30' N., and long. 52° and 66° E.

Nongorod, a gov. of Russia, between lat.57° and 61° N., and long. 30° and 40° E. Pop. (1846) 907,100.

Novgorod (Veliki, or "the great"), a

city of Russia, cap. gov., on the Volkhof, near its exit from the Lake Ilmen. Pop. (1846) 16,000. Also, Novgorod-Severskoi, a town of Russia, gov., and 109 m. ENE. Tchernigov, cap. dist., on the Desna. Pop. 8000.

Nürnburg (Eng. Nuremberg), a city of Bavaria, cap. circ, Midd. Franconia, on the Pegnitz. Pop. (1846) 45,381,

mostly protestants.

Odessa, a celebrated seaport city of S. Russia, gov. of W. Kherson, on a fine bay of the Black Sea. Lat. (of cathedral) 46° 28' 9" N., long. 30° 44' 5" E. Pop (1845) 70,877, or, including garrison,

Olmutz (Morav. Holomauc), a strongly fortified city of Moravia, and formerly Pop. in 1845 (excluding garits cap.

rison) 12,560.

Olympus (Mount), a mountain range of Thessaly, on the border of Macedonia, its summit famed by Homer and other poets as the throne of the gods. Lat. 40° 4' 32" N., long. 22° 25' E. Estimated height 9745 feet.

Oporto, or Porto, the second city of Portugal in rank and commercial importance, cap. prov., on r. b. of the Douro. Lat. (of fort St. J. de For) 41° 8′ 54″ N., long. 8° 37′ 9″ W. Pop.,

with suburbs, 80,000.

Orkney Islands, Orcades, an archi-pelago off the N. coast of Scotland, be-tween lat. 58° 47' and 59° 20', and long. 2° 4' and 3° 23' W., separated from the co. Caithness by Pentland Frith. Pop. 30,507, of whom 16,141 are in Mainland, and 14,366 in the N. and S. Isles.

Orkney and Shelland, the most N. co. of Scotland, comprising the islands of same name. Pop. 61,065.

Orleans, a comm. and city of France, cap. dep. Loiret, on r. b. of the Loire. Pop. (1846) 41,507. Also, Orleans, several cos. of the U. S., N. Amer. Also, Orleans (Isle of), Lower Canada, is in the St. Lawrence river, NW. Quebec.

Osnaburg (Germ. Osnabrück), a town of Hanover, cap. landr. and principality, on the Hase, an affl. of the Ems. Pop.

(1845) 11.751.

Ostende, a fortified seaport town of belgium, prov. W. Flanders, cap. cant., on the North Sea. Lat. 510 14' 1" N., long. 2° 55' 5" E. Pop. (1845) 14,506.

Overyssel, a prov. of the Netherlands, B. of the Zuyder Zee. Pop. (1849) 212,707.

Padang, a Dutch settlement of Sumatra, on its W. coast. Lat. 0° 48′ S., long. 100° 20′ E.

Padua (Ital. Padova, anc. Patavium), fortified city of Austrian Italy, in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

(1846) 60,000.

Paisley, a parl. and munic. bor., manufacturing town, and par. of Scotland, co. Renfrew. Pop. 60,487. Principal manufactures are those of silk and other shawls, silks, muslins, cotton, thread, and ornamental or fancy goods.

Palermo, Panormus, a fortified city, cap. of Sicily, with a port on the N. side of the island, in a rich valley. Lat. of lighthouse 38° 2" N., long. 13° 22' 2"

Pop. (1844) 180,000.

Palmyra (the Tadmor of Scripture), a ruined city in an oasis of the Syrian desert, pash. of Damascus. Lat. 340 18' N., long. 380 13' E.

Panama, a fortified seaport city of S. America, New Granada, cap. dep. lstmo, on the Gulf and S. coast of the Isthmus of Panama. Lat. 80 56' N., long. 790

31' 2" W.

Papua, or New Guinea, an extensive island of the E. Archipelago, beyond Ceram and Gilolo, and comprised in the great division Australasia, between the equator and lat. 10° S., and long. 130° and 150° E.

Paris, Lutetla, afterwards Parisil, an important city of W. Europe, cap. of France, and of the dep. Seine, situated on both banks of the Seine, and on two islands in its centre. Lat. (of observatory, 193 ft. above the sea) 480 50 13" N., long. 2º 20' 24" E. Pop. (1846) 945,721, or, including the fluctuating pop., 1,053,897. Paris, considerably enlarged by the line of fortifications with which it has recently been surrounded, extends on both banks of the Seine, over a length of 8 m., circumference 22 m.

Parnassus (Mount), a famous mountain of Greece, gov. Phocis, its culminating point, in lat. 389 35' 57" N., long. 22° 27' 36" E., 8068 feet above the sea.

Pasco, the principal mining town of

different periods from 4000 to perhaps

12,000.

Paimos, or Patimo, an island off the W. coast of Asia-Minor. Lat. 37° 17′ N., long. 26° 35′ E. Pop. 4000, all Greeks, and mostly seafaring people. This island is famous as the place to which S. John was banished by Domitian. and where he wrote the book of Revelations.

Patras, Patræ, a fortified seaport town of Greece, and the principal seat of its foreign trade, Morea, cap. gov. Achaia, on the Gulf of Patras, 13 m. SW. Lepanto. Lat. of castle, on the site of the ancient Acropolis, 38° 14′ 5″ N., long. 21° 44′ E. Pop. 8000. Also, Guif of 21° 44' E. Pop. 8000. Also, Gulf of Patras, an inlet of the Ionian Sea, Mediterranean, between the Morea and W. Hellas, Greece

Peking, or Pekin (Chinese, Pih-King, "the northern capital,"), the cap. city of China, and modern metropolis of the Chinese empire. Lat. of imperial observatory, 39° 54′ 13′′ N., long. 116° 28′ 54″ E.

Pembroke, a parl. and munic. bor. and seaport town of S. Wales, co. Pembroke, on a creek of Milford-Haven. Pop., in-

cluding Pater, 6156.

Perth, a city, royal, parl, and munic, bor., manufacturing town, seat of a presbytery and synod, and formerly the metropolis of Scotland, cap. co., in a plain on the r. bank of the Tay. Lat 56° 23′ 50″ N., long. 3° 26′ 20″ W. Pop. of city, including 4 pars., 19,293; ditto of royal, burgh 12,616; ditto of parl. bor.

20,167.

Peshawer, or Peshawar ("the advanced post"), a prov. and frontier city and forming a part of Afghanistan, but now forming a part of the Punjab dom. Pop. about 50,000.

Pesth, a royal free city of Hungary, on l. b. of the Danube, immediately opposite Buda. Pop., exclusive of gar-

rison (1846), 60,000.

Petersburg (St.), a gov. of European Russia, mostly between lat. 580 and 600 30' N., and long. 27° 30' and 33° 30' E. Population (1846), including the cap., 990,000.

Petersburg (St.), the modern cap. city of the Russian empire, cap. gov.; founded by Peter the Great in 1703, at the influx of the Neva into the Gulf of Finland. Lat. of observatory 590 566 5" N., long. 30° 19' E. Pop. (1846) 500,000, including strangers

Philadelphia, a principal city, river port, was formerly cap of the U.S. of N. America, state Pennsylvania. Lat. 39° 57′ N., long. 75° 10′ W. Pop. (1840) 220,423,

Pisa, a walled city of Tuscany, cap, N. Peru, dep. Junin. Pop. varies at prov., in a marshy but fertile plain, on

Lat. 43º 43' 11" N., long. the Arno. 10° 23′ 58" E. Pop. (1845) 22,000.

Pitcairn Island, a solitary island in the Pacific Ocean, lat. 250 3' 6" S., long. 1300 8' W. In 1790, this island was resorted to by the mutineers of the Bounty, consisting of 9 British sailors, 6 native Tahitian men and 12 women. sequence of various discords and massacres, at the end of 10 years there remained only one Englishman, Adams, the Tahitian females, and 19 children, their offspring. Under the superintendence of this man the children were educated and trained up to habits of industry and morality.

Pittsburgh, a city, port of entry, and important manufacturing town of the U. S. N. America, Pennsylvania, in its W. part. Pop. 20,115, or, with its suburbs, Alleghany and Birmingham, 32,758.

Plymouth, a parl. and munic. bor., seaport town, and naval station in England, co. Devon. Lat. of Mount Wise 500 22' N., long. 40 10' 2" W. Plymouth has a large trade with London, Bristol, Newcastle, Newport; it imports a good deal of W. India colonial produce.

Poitiers, Limonum, a comm. and town Politers, Limonum, a comm. and town of France, cap. dep. Vienne, on the Clain, and on the Railway to Bordeaux, 58 m. SSW. of Tours. Pop. (1846) 22,647. It was the scene of a signal and most unexpected victory, gained Sept. 9, 1356, over the French by the English under Edward the Black Prince, who captured and brought to England John, king of

Pondicherry, a maritime town, and the cap, of the French settlements in India on the Coromandel coast. Lat. 110 55'

N., long. 79° 49' R.

Popagan, a city of S. America, New Granada, cap. dep. Cauca, lat. 20 28' 28''. N., long. 76' 36' W. Pop. 20,000. Portobello, a quoad sacra pa., parl. and munic. bor., scaport town, and fashion-able summer resort, Scotland, co. Edin-

Pop. of parl, bor, and town, 35H8.

Portsmouth, a parl. and munic. bor., fortified seaport town, pa. and the principal naval station of England, co. Hants. Lat. of observatory, 50° 48′ N., long. 1º 16' W. Pop. 53,027.

Posen, a fortified city of Prussia, cap. Grand Duchy Posen. Pop. (1846) 32,000, exclusive of 4496 military.

Potsdam, a city of Prussia, cap. reg., and the second royal residence, at the confl of the Ruthe with the Havel. Pop. (1846) 38,000. It is the birthplace of Alex. von Humboldt.

Lat. of observatory, 50° 5′ 19″ N., long: 14° 25′ 22″ E. Pop. (1846) 68,695, exclusive of a garrison of 5320 mem.

Preston, a parl. and munic. bor., town, and pa. of England, co. Lancaster, hund. Amounderness, on the N. bank of the Ribble. Pop. (1847) 50,332.

Providence, a city and seaport of the

U. S. N. America, and the second in size in the New England states, cap. state Rhode Island, on both sides of Providence river. It was founded in 1636 by Roger Williams, and presented the first instance of a community established on principles of perfect religious toleration.

Quebec, the cap. city of British N. America, and of Lower Canada, on the N. bank of the St. Lawrence, at the in-flux of the St. Charles river. Lat. 46° 49' 1' N., long. 71° 13' W. Pop. between 30,000 and 40,000, mostly of French ex-traction. The fortifications are strong, and at their S. extremity is a citadel comprising 40 acres, having on the W. the heights of Abraham, on which, in 1759, was fought the action memorable by the deaths of Wolfe and Montcalm.

Quentin (St.), Augusta Veromandu-orum, a comm. and manufacturing town of France, dep. Aisne, cap. arrond. Pop. (1846) 23,218.

Guido, or Keelwa, a town of E. Africa, Zanguebar, on an island off the coast. Lat. of fort 8° 57' S., long, 39° 34' 2" E. Quilo, the cap. city of the republic Ecuador, S. America; elevation 9543 ft. Lat. 0° 13' 27" S., long. 78° 50' W. Pop. loosely estimated at 50,000.

Rabba, a large and populous town of cent. Africa, Nigritia, on the Niger. Lat. 9° 15' N., long. 5° 26' E. Also, Rabba, a collection of ruins in Syria, pash. Damascus, E. the Dead Sea

Ramah, or Er-ram, a village of Pales-

tine, near Jerusalem

Ramilies, a vill. of Belgium, prov. S. Brabant. Here the Duke of Marlborough defeated the French, 23d May, 1706.

Rangoon, the principal commercial town of the Burmese dom., on the E. branch of the Irrawadi at its delta. Lat. 16° 47' N., long. 96° 10' E. Pop. 20,000.

Ratisbon (Germ. Regensburg, anc. Re-num). a town of Bavaria. Pop. (1845) ginum), a town of Bavaria. 23,000, including 2671 military

Ravenna, a city of central Italy, Pon-tific. Sta., cap. of one of the N. legations and of the Romagna. Pop. (1845) 12,000.

Reims, or Rheims, Durocortorum, a city of France, cap. arrond., dep. Marne.

Pop. (1846) 42,481.

Rhodes, a strongly fortified city and seaport of Asiatic Turkey, cap. of the Prague (Germ. Prag. anc. Praga), a Rhodes, a strongly fortified city and city of Europe, cap. of the kingdom of seaport of Asiatic Turkey, cap. of the Bohemia, near its centre, on the Moldau. Islamd Rhodes, at its NE. extremity. Lat. of mole 36° 26' 9" N., long, 28° 13' Pop. about 15,000.

Rhode Island, the smallest of the U.S. N. America, in the N. part of the Union, between lat. 41°18' and 42°1' N., and long. 71° 6′ and 71° 55′ W. Area 1360 sq. m. Pop. 108,830.

Richmond, a parl and munic. bor., town, and par. of England, co. York, N. Riding, on the Swale. It now belongs to the Duke of Richmond, on whose ancestors it was conferred by Charles II.

Riga, an important fortified city, and the second commercial port of European Russia, cap. of Livonia, on the Düna. Lat. 56° 57' N., long. 24° 6' 5" E. Pop. (1838), including garrison, 71,228.

Rio-de-Janeiro, the metropolitan prov. of Brazil, between lat. 21° 23' and 23° 20' S., and long. 40° 53' and 44° 40' W.

Rio-de Janeiro, the cap. of the empire of Brazil, and of the prov. Rio, the most important commercial city of S. America. Lat. of Fort Vilagagnan, 22° A4' 7' S., long. 43° 9' W. Pop. (1843) 170,000, comprising Brazilians 60,000, foreigners 25,000, slaves 85,000.

Rochelle (La), a comm. and fortified seaport town of France, cap. dep. Characteristic, lat. of tower 46° 9° 24" N., long, 1° 9° 16" W.

Pop. (1846) 14,136.

Romagna, a prov. of central Italy, and one of the earliest possessions of the Roman bishops, on the Adriatic, between the N. Legations and the march of Ancona, and now forming the Pontif. delegs. of Ravenna and Forli.

Rosetta (Arab. Rashidi), a seaport town of Lower Egypt, cap. prov. on the W. arm of the Nile, at its delta.

Rotterdam, an important commercial city of the Netherlands, prov. of S. Holland. Lat. 51° 55′ 8″ N., long. 4° 29′ 5″ E. Pop. 80,000.

Saigon, a city and river port of Assam, Further India, cap, and chief commercial emporium of its S. prov. Tsiampa, on the river of Saigon. Lat. 10° 47' N., the river of Saigon. Lat. 10° 47′ N., long. 106° 45′ E. Pop. has been estimated at 180,000, including many Chinese.

Salamanca (Salamantica), a city of Spain, cap. prov., extending up rocky heights on rt. bk. of the Tormes. Pop.

(1845) 12,870.

Salem, a dist. of British India, presid. Madras. Also, Salem, a seaport city of the U.S., N. America, Massachusetts. Also, Salem, a co., U. S., N. America, in SW. of N. Jersey. Pop. 16,024; also numerous tasips., N. America. Salisbury, or New Sarum, a city, and

parl. and munic. bor. of England, cap. co. Wilts, on the Avon. Pop. of bor.,

pars. Fisherton - Anger and Milford. 11,626.

Samarcand, a city of independent Turkestan, dom. of Bokhara, on the Zer-afchan. Lat. 39° 50' N., long. 66° 50' E. Pop. about 10,000.

San Salvador, a city of central America, and cap. of the Federal dist. of that Confed, before its dissolution.

16.000.

Sansanding, two towns of central Africa: 1. State Bambarra, on the Ioliba. It is stated to be a place of extensive trade, and to have from 10,000 to 11,000 Here Mungo Park embarked inhabs. in his schooler to descend the river in 1805.

Sardinia, a large island of the Medi-terranean, S. of Corsica, from which it is separated by the Strait of Bonifacio, between lat. 38° 51′ 50″ and 41° 15′ 42″ N., and long. 8° 3′ 39″ and 9° 50′ 30″ E. Pop. (1839) 524,633. Cap. Cagliari.

Schaffhausen, the most N. cant. of Switzerland, wholly N. the Rhine. Pop. (1837) 32,582, nearly all Protestants. Schaffhausen, the cap., is situated on the rt. bk. of the Rhine.

45' E. Near it are the rock of Scylla, and the whirlpool of Charybdis.

Seine, the smallest, but most wealthy and important, dep. of France in the N., formed of part of the old prov. lle-de-France, cap. Paris. Pop. (1846) 1,364,467.

Senegal, a French colonial dependency of W. Africa, consisting of the island and town of St. Louis, at the mouth of the Senegal, and several forts along the banks of that river, Albreda, &c., on the Gambia, Goree, and other settlements S. of Cape Verd. Total pop. (1841) 18,864, of whom 10.283 are slaves.

Seringapatam (Sri-Runga-puttun, "city of Vishuu"), a celebrated fortress of S. India, and, under Hyder All and Tippoo Saib, the cap. of Mysore. Lat. 129 25' N., long. 76' 48' E. Seringapatam was besieged by the English in 1791, and again in 1782, when Tippoo purchased a peace by ceding half his dominions and paying 330 lacs of rupees to the British and their allies. It was again besieged in 1799, and taken by storm on the 4th May, on which occasion Tippoo was killed, and the dynasty of Hyder terminated, the ancient Rajpoot line being restored to the sovereignty of Mysore.

Sevilla, or Seville, Hispalis, a famous comprising, with the city, ports of the city of Spain. Lat. (La Giralda) 370 22' 44" N., long. 60 0' 59" W. Pop. (1845) | nian and Kilmore, N. the Ross of Mulf.

Sheppey, an island of England, co. Kent, at the mouth of the Thames, between the estuaries of the Medway and Swale.

Shetland, or Zetland Islands, an archipelago of about thirty islands, in the N. Atlantic, belonging to Scotland, of which country, with the Orkneys, 50 m. SSW., it forms a co.; mostly between lat. 59° 51' and 69° 50' N., and long. 0° 44' and 1° 44' W. Pop. 30,558.

Shirax, a city, and formerly the cap. of Persia, cap. prov. Fars, in a valley famous for its gardens and fertility. Lat. 29° 36′ N., long. 55° 44′ E. Pop. variously estimated from 20,000 to 40,000.

Shrewsbury, Uriconium, a parl. and munic. bor. and town of England, cap. co. Salop, nearly enclosed by the Severn.

Pop. 17,688.

Simplon, a mountain of Switzerland, between the Valais and Piedmont, and across which was carried the famous Route of the Simplon, under the orders

of Napoleon.

Sinai (Mount), a mountain of Arabia Petræa, famous in Scripture, and geneidentified with the Jeb-el-Mousa, or "Mount of Moses," one of a cluster of mountains, of which Mount Horeb forms a part of the N. end. Lat. 28° 30′ N., long. 34° E. Height above the sea, 7497 feet.

Singapore (Singhapura, "city of the lion"), a settlement belonging to Great Britain, in SB. Asia. Town of the same name, in lat. 1º 17 N., long, 103° 50' E. Pop. (1849) 50,000, amongst whom are 20,000 Chinese and a few Europeans.

Skyc, the largest island of the Inner Hebrides, Scotland, co. Inverness. Pop.

23,082.

Smyrna, a famous city and seaport of Asia Minor, and the chief commercial emporium of W. Asia.

Spa, a town and watering-place of Belgium, near the frontier of Rhenish

Prussia, prov. of Liege. Pop. 3600.

Spires (German Speyer, ancient Noviomagus), a city of W. Germany, cap.

Rhenish Bavaria, on the Rhine. Pop. 9240, of whom about 1-third are Roman Catholics.

Spitzbergen, a group of islands in the Arctic Ocean, midway between Green-land and Novala Zemlia, the most N. known land on the globe. Lat. of N.-most island 80° 48' N., long. 20° 29' E. The islands are visited by English, Danish, and Norwegian whalers, for the Danish, and Norwegian whalers, for the lighthouse, 510-37' N., long, 30-56' W. numerous whales, white bears, etc. on the coasts.

Staffa, a small island of the inner Hebrides, Scotland, co. Argyle, pas. Kilnicoast, cap. intend. dist. and cant. Lat.

celebrated for its basaltic columns as caverns.

Stirling (formerly Stryvelyne, or Estrivelin), a royal parl. and munic. bor. river port, town, and pa. of Scotland, cap. co. Pop. 9095; do. of parl. bor, 10,745; do. of town 8307.

Stockholm, the cap. city of Sweden, en its E. coast, at the junction of Lake its E. coast, at the junction of Lames Moelar with the Baltic. Lat. of observatory 59° 20′ 6″ N., long. 18° 3′ 7″ E. Pop. (1840) 84,160. Also, Stockholm, a township, U. S., N. Amer., New York, on the river St. Regis. Pop. 2995.

Strasbourg, Argentoratum, a strongly fortified city of France, on its E. frontier, cap. dep. Bas-Rhin. Lat. 48° 34′ 56″ N., long. 7° 44′ 51″ E. Pop. (1846) 52,186. Also, Strasbourg, several towns of Germany.

Stromboli, Strongyle, the most NE. of the Lipari islands in the Mediterranean, off the N. coast of Sicily. Pop. 1200. It is wholly of volcanic formation: at its W. extremity is an active volcano, the crater being on the NW. side of the mountain, about 1-third from its summit.

Stuttgart, the cap. city of Wurtemburg S. Germany, on the Nesenbach, a small affi. of the Neckar. Lat. of cathedral 48° 46′ 36′ N., long. 9° 10′ 52″ E. Pop. (1845) 28,606.

Suez, a frontier seaport town of Egypt. near the head of the Gulf of Suez (Red Sea). Lat. 29° 58′ 6′′ N., long. 32° 34′ 2" R. Stationary inhabs. from 1500 to 2000. On it are traces of the anc. canal connecting the Red and Mediterraneau seas.

Sunderland, a parl. and munic. bor., seaport town, and pa. of England, at the mouth of the Wear in the N. Sea. Lat. of light, on N. of two piers which enclose its harbour, 54° 54' 5''N., long. 1° 22' W.

Area of pa. 120 ac. Pop. 17,022.

Surinam, a river of Dutch Guiana. traverses the centre of that colony, which is sometimes called by its name, and after a N. course of 300 m., enters the Atlantic near Paramaribo.

Susa, a fortified seaport town of N. Africa. Also, Susa, Segustium, a town of N. Italy, Piedmont, div. of Turin. cap. prov., on rt. bank of the Dorg-Ripaira.

Pop. of comm. (1838) 3270.
Swanses (Welsh Aber-Tawy), a parl. and munic. bor. seaport town, and pa. of S. Wales, co. Glamorgan, on the W. side of the Tawy or Towy, at its mouth in Swansea bay, Bristol Channel. Lat. of

of lighthouse 37° 3' N., long. 15° 17' 5" E. Pop, which in antiquity was said to have amounted to 200,000, is now only 14,000. Syracuse was founded B. C. 736 by a colony from Corinth.

Talavera (de la Reyna), a city of Spain, prov. of Toledo, on rt. b. of the Tagus. Pop. 6363. Here, on the 27th and 28th July 1809, the English and Spanish troops under the Duke of Wellington, totally defeated the French under Joseph Buonaparte and Marshals Jourdain and

Tangier, a fortified town of Morocco, kingdom Fez, on the W. side of a bay of the Strait of Gibraltar. Lat. of British consulate 350 47' 2" N., long. 50 48' 5" W. Pop. variously estimated from 4000 to 10,000.

Tatta, or Tattah, a considerable town of Scinde, in the delta of the Indus. Lat. 24° 46' N., long. 68° E. Estimated թօը. 10,000.

Tefis, or Tifis, the cap. city of Georgia, in Asiatic Russia, and of all Russian Transcaucasia, on the Kur. Lat. 41° 41′ N., long. 44° 50′ 30″ E. Pop. in Pop. in 1843 estimated at 50,000.

Teheran, or Tehran, the cap. city of Persia, prov. Irak Ajemi. Lat. 35° 42' N., long. 51° 20' 50' E. Stationary pop. estimated at 10,000.

Tenerife, or Teneriffe, the largest of the Canary islands in the Atlantic. Pop. (1835) 85,011.

Thebes (Greek Diospolis Magna), a famous city in antiquity, long the cap, of Egypt, the stupendous remains of which in Upper Egypt, extend for 7 m. along both banks of the Nile, about lat. 250 41' N., long. 32° 38' E., and present in every respect the finest collection of ancient monuments existing in the world.

Thuringian Forest (Germ. Thuringerwald), a mountain range of central Germany, in the Saxon duchies, extends from the Frankenwald NW. for 50 m.

It is clothed with pine woods.

Timbuctoo, or Tombuctoo, a town of central Africa, Soudan, near the border of the Desert Sahara, 8 m. N. the Joliba (Niger). Lat. 17° 10′ N., long. 2° W. (?) Pop. 12,000 (?), principally Negroes, with some Moors.

Tobago, a British W. India island, Windward group, lat. of Melville rocks 11° 25' N., and long. 60° 32' W. Pop. (1842) 13,208

Tokat, a city of Asia Minor, pash. of ivas, on the Yeshil-Irmak. Pop. esti-Tivas, on the Yeshil-Irmak. mated at 6700 families, of which 5000 are

Turkish, 1500 Armenian, and 150 Greek.

Tokay, a town of NE. Hungary, co.
Zemplin, on rt. b. of the Theiss, at the influx of the Bodrog, 43 m. NNW. De- to have been on a height at the S. ex-

breckin. Pop. 5712. It is celebrated as being the entrepôt for the famous Tokay wine

Toledo, Toletum, a famous city of Spain, and its cap. under the Goths and Moors, now cap. prov. Toledo, in the centre of the Iberian peninsula, on the Tagus. Lat. 39° 52′ 24′ N., long. 4° 49′. W. Pop. said to have amounted formerly to 200,000, was, in 1845, 13,431.

Tornea, a town of Finland, on the Tornea, at its mouth in the head of the Gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 65° 50' 8" N., long. 24° 14′ 0' E. Pop. 700.

long. 24° 14′ 0′ E. Pop. 700.

Toulon, Telo Martius, a comm. and

important military and naval port of France, dep. Var, on a fine bay of the Mediterr. Lat. of observatory 43° 7′ 5″. N., long. 5° 5° E. Pop. (1846) 39,243. Toulouse, Tolosa, a city of France, capet. H. Garonne, on the Garonne, the Canal du Midl. Lat. of new observatory

43° 36′ 47" N., long 1° 27′ 56" E. Pop. (1846) 71,895.

Tranquebar, a fortified seaport town of Hindostan, on the Coromandel coast, in the delta of the Cavery. Pop. (including its territory of about 25 sq. m.), 26,000 (?).

Trebisond, or Trebizonde (Pashalic of). a subdivision of Turkish Armenia, extending along the coast of the Black Sea, between lat. 40° 30' and 41° 30' N., and long. 380 and 420 E.

Treves (German Triev, ancient Augusta Trevirorum), a city of Rhenish

Prussia, cap. reg. on r. b. of the Moselle. Pop. (1846) 16,250. Triest, or Trieste, Tergeste, the principal seaport city of the Austrian empire. lllyria, cap. gov. and circ. on the Gulf of Trieste, at the NE. extremity of the Adriatic Sea. Lat. of lighthouse 45° 38' 6" N., long. 13° 46' 5" E. Pop. (1846)

Trincomalee, a seaport town of Cevion. on its NE. coast, in lat. 80 33' 7" N., long. 81° 14′ 7″ E.

Trinidad, the most S. of the British W. India islands, windward group, immediately off the coast of S. America. Lat. of Port Galera 10° 50' N., long. 60° 34' W. Area estimated at 2000 sq. m. Pop. (1842) 60,319.

Tripoli, or Tarablus, Tripolis, a seaport town of Syria, cap. pash. on the Mediterranean, at the foot of a spur of Mount Lebanon, and at the mouth of the Kadisha. Lat. 34° 26′ 4″ N., long. 35° 49' E. Pop. 15,000.

Tripolizza, or Tripolitza, a town of Greece, Morea, cap. gov. Mantinea

Troy, a ruined city of Asia-Minor, which has been rendered famous by the " lliad " of Homer. Its site is supposed tremity of the plain of Troy, 9 m. SSE. the entrance of the Hellespont from the Ægean Sea, close to the modern vill. Bunarbashi. Also, Troy, a city and river-port, U. S., N. Amer., New York, cap.

Troves. Augustobona, afterwards Tricassium, a town and city of France, cap. dep. Aube, on the Seine. Pop. (1846)

24,702.
Tsiampa, or Champa, a small state of SE. Asia, partly situated on the R. coast of the Gulf of Siam, now subject to Anam (Cochin China) of which it forms the most S. prov. Chief town, Nhatrang. Inhabitants partly Mohammedans.

Tunis, a beylik or regency of N. Africa, between lat. 31° and 37° N., and long. 8° and 11º E.

Turin (Ital. Torino, anc. Augusta Turinorum), the cap. city of the Sard. dom., N. Italy, Piedmont.

Tyre, a marit. city of antiquity. Also, a tushp. U. S., N. America, New York, on the Clyde, 170 m. W. of Albany. Pop. 1506.

. Uim, a frontier town of Wurtemberg, cap. circ. Danube, on l. b. of the Danube, where it begins to be navigable, and on

the Blau. Pop. (1846) 13,468.

Upsal, or Upsala, a læn or prov. of Sweden. Pop. (1840) 85,294. Also, Upsal, a city of Sweden, cap. læn, on the Sala. Pop. 5000.

Valencia, Valentia Edetanorum, a city of Spain, cap. prov. on the Suria or Guadalaviar. Lat. 39° 28′ 7″ N., long. 0° 24′ W. Pop. (1845) 71,013. Also, Valencia, a city of S. Amer., Venezuela, cap. prov., dep. Caracas. Estimated pop. 16,000.

Valenciennes, Valentiana, a comm. and fortified town of France, dep. Nord, cap arrond., on the Scheldt. Pop. (1848) 18,558.

Valladolid, Pintia, a city of Spain, cap. prov. Pop. (1845) 19,191. Also, Valladolid, several cities of America.

Valparaiso, the chief seaport town of Chili, prov. of Santiago, on the Pacific. Lat. of Fort St. Antonio, 33° 1' 9" S, long. 71° 41' 5" W. Pop. (1838) about 30,000.

Venice (Ital. Venezia, Germ. Venedig, anc. Venetia), a fortified city of Austrian Italy, cap, gov and deleg., and one of the two caps, of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Lat. of St. Mark, 459-25' 9"
N., loag. 12° 20' 2" E. Pop. (1842)
110,000. Also, Fenice, a township, U. S.
N. America, New York, 15 m. S. of Aubern. Pop. 210'8. burn. Pop. 2105.

lighthouse, 19° 11′ 9″ N., long. 96° 8′ W Pop. 6500.

Verona, a fortified city of Austrian Italy, gov. Venice, cap. deleg., on the

Adige.

Versailles, a comm. and city of France, p. dep. Seine-et-Oise. Pop. (1846) 1901. The magnificent palace of Ver-34.901. sailles was restored during the reign of Louis Philippe. Many treaties have been signed here; at one of which, in 1782, England recognized the independence of the United States of America; and here, on 20th June 1789, the representatives of the communes of France constituted the National Assembly, and took the famous oath of the jeu de Paume. It is the birth-place of Philip V. of Spain; Louis XIV., XVI., and XVIII., and Charles X. of France; the Abbé de l'Epec; and General Hoche.

Vesuvius, Mount (Ital. Vesuvio), a celebrated mountain of S. Italy, and the only active volcano of any consequence on the continent of Europe, on the E. side of the bay of Naples. Lat. of crater

40° 49' N., long. 14° 26' E.

Vicenza, Vicentia, a city of Austrian Italy, cap. deleg., on the Bacchiglione. Pop. (1843) 33,000. Vienna (Germ. Wiens, anc. Vindobona), the capital of Austria.

Vigo, Vico Spacorum, a seanort town of Spain, prov. of Pontevedra. Pop. 4167. Virgin Islands, in the British W. Indies, are a group E. of Porto Rico, be-tween lat. 18° and 19° N., and long, 64° and 65° 30′ E. It suffered from an earthquake in 1830.

Vitoria, a town of Spain, cap. prov. Alava, 29 m.S.of Bilboa, on the road from Madrid to Bayonne. Pop. (1845) 14,901.

Walcheren, the most W. of the islands of the Netherlands, prov. Zealand, be-tween the E. and W. Scheldt. Pop. 45,000. The English, under the Earl of Chatham, occupied it in 1809.

Warsaw (Pol. Warszawa, Germ. Warschau, Fr. Varsovie), the former cap of the kingdom of Poland, and on l.b. of the Vistula, now included in Austria. Lat. of observatory, 52° 13' 5" N., long. 21° 2' 9" E. Pop. (1844) 154,078, of whom 35,000 were Jews. Also, Warsaw, a tnshp. U. S., N. Amer., New York, cap. co. Wyoming, near Lake Erie.

Washington, two pars. of England. -1. co. Durham, near Gateshead. Pop. 2396, chiefly employed in collieries; 2. co. Sussex, 4 m. WNW. of Steyning. Pop. 880. Also, numerous cos. of the Vera Cruz, the principal seaport town U.S., N. America. Also, the cap. city of the Mexican Confed., in the above of the U.S., N. America, in the feudal U. S., N. America. Also, the cap. city state, on the Gulf of Mexico. Lat. of dist. of Columbia, on the Potomac, at the influx of the Anacootia. Lat. of Capitol 383 53' 34" N., long. 770 1' 3." W. Pop. (1840) 23,364. Also, nu-W. Pop. (1840) 23,364. Also, numerous trishps. and vills, of the U.S.,

N. America.

Waterloo, a vill. of Belgium, prov. S. Brabant, 9 m. SSE. of Brussels, famous for the great battle fought near it, 18th Jume 1815. Also, a tnshp., U. S., N. America. Also, a town or tnshp. of W. Australia.

Weimar, the cap. city of the grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar, central Ger-

many, on l. b. of the Ilm. Pop. (1846)

Wistorg, or Wyborg (Finn. Wilpuri), a seaport town of Finland, cap. læn, on a deep inlet of the Gulf of Finland. — II. (or Viborg), a town of Denmark, cap. stift. and amt, on the small lake of Wiborg, 36 m. NW. of Aarhuus. Pop. 5500. Wight (Isle of), Vectis.

Wilna, a gov. and town of Russia. [Vilna.]

Wilne, a tnshp., U. S., N. America, New York, with the vill. of Carthage.

Pop. 2591. Windward Islands, [West Indies]. Wolfenblittel, a town of Germany,

duchy of Brunswick. Pop. (1846) 9003. Warzburg, a fortified town of Bavaria, cap. circ. Lower Franconia.

Yarkand, or Yarkund, a flourishing

city, and the present cap. of Chinese Turkestan, in a fertile plain, on the Yarkund river, in lat. 38° 19' N., long. 76° 7' 45" E. Pop. stated to comprise 30,000 families.

Yarribs, a state of Central Africa,

Lat. of | Guinea, near the Niger (Quorra), in lat.

90 N., long. 30 to 60 E.

Yenicisk, a wast gov. of Asiatic Russia, comprised in E. Siberia, between long. 80° and 107° B., and extending from lat. 51° N.-ward. Pop. has been estimated at 210,000 (?).

Ypres, a fortified town of Belgium, prov. W. Flanders, cap. arrond., 30 m. SSW. Bruges, on the Yperlee. Pop. (1838) 15,516.

Zacatecas, a dep. of Mexican Confed., mostly between lat. 21° 30' and 24° 50' N., and long. 100° 10' and 103° 40' W. Pop. 273,575, who live mostly by mining and agriculture.

Zanguebar, a vast country of E. Africa, on the Indian Ocean, with a coast line extending from lat. 40 N. to

12º S. [Zanzibar.]

Zante, one of the Ionian islands, Mediterranean, 8 m. S. Cephalonia. Lat. of N. point 37° 56′ 5″ N., long. 20° 41′ 5" E. Pop. (1844) 38,929.

Zenzzińs, or Zengueber, an island off the E. coast of Africa. Lat of town 6° 27' 7" S., long. 39° 37 E. Pop. upwards of 200,000, consisting of Araba, Sowily Africans, and Negro slaves.

Znaim, or Znaym, a town of Moravia, cap. circ., on lt. bk. of the Thaya. Pop. 5010.

Zarick, a canton of Switzerland, in the N. Pop. (1837) 231,576, nearly all Protestants, and using the German language.

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